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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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PLANNING FOR POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

THE continuing successes of the military forces of the Allied Nations leave barely a trace of our original dread of the consequences of an Axis victory. Our spirits are depressed by the horrifying knowledge that many lives must yet be sacrificed in achieving the absolute destruction of the aggressor governments, which is the essential requirement of an acceptable termination of this conflict. But the people of the nations aligned against the forces of aggression, including those whose own lives constitute the daily offerings of the requisite sacrifice, are resigned to this fatality; and there is no sign of wavering in their purpose or in their confidence of the outcome. It is thus that the minds of men not themselves in military service are freed to contemplate the constructive possibilities of the victory in prospect instead of being forced to plan some series of defensive maneuvers against the anticipated ruthlessness

of Hitler's brazenly proclaimed new order in Europe.

There is ample evidence of official planning for effective utilization of the opportunities to be presented by the ensuing victory, such as the public addresses of President Roosevelt and many representatives of the federal and state governments of our country, the pronouncements of Mr. Churchill and other high officials of the British Commonwealth of Nations, the co-operation of Central and South American Republics in the movement toward hemisphere solidarity, Russia's espousal of freedom for post-war Germany, and various declarations of the governments in exile. That such official planning is not being projected against a current of popular disapproval in most of these areas is indicated by the reports of voluntary organizations which are promoting the study and discussion of post-war problems.

The extent to which the idea of preparedness for peace has challenged

popular interest in our own country is disclosed by a recent investigation of the Twentieth Century Fund. In the report of this inquiry, published under the title *Postwar Planning in the United States*, 109 private organizations of nation-wide jurisdiction are listed among the agencies now engaged in conducting research or in disseminating information on the problems with which we shall probably be confronted when the war ends. There are, of course, many state and local organizations engaged in similar projects, in addition to some twenty-eight important public agencies of national scope. That the 109 private agencies are fairly representative of the varied interests of national associations generally is shown by the fact that fifty-two of them are classified in the category of research and educational organizations; thirty are listed as commercial, industrial, and financial organizations; ten are described as religious and welfare groups; eight are professional societies; seven are women's organizations; and two represent labor unions. In announcing the results of this inquiry, Evans Clark, executive director of the Twentieth Century Fund, declared that the efforts now being made to devise constructive methods of dealing with the social and economic problems of the post-war period are much greater than those stimulated by the last war.

In a companion volume, *Wartime Facts and Postwar Problems*, the Twentieth Century Fund presents a summary of the post-war plans of the

governments and organized groups in the Allied Nations. It is significant that both governmental and nongovernmental groups in all countries are devoting major attention to problems involving international relations. While the objectives of planning on the part of both public and nonpublic agencies in the Allied Nations reflect universal concern for such interests as industry and commerce, economic security, food, and transportation, we are assured by the Twentieth Century Fund reports that education and social problems, public discussion and opinion are in no sense disregarded. On the contrary, there is general recognition on the part of the majority of the agencies surveyed that public enlightenment and understanding constitute the only sure foundation for any program designed to establish and sustain such economic and political stability of national governments as is implied by the objective of permanent peace. In the light of this fact, it is apparent that organized education itself has a unique contribution to make to the realization of this objective. Readers of the *School Review* will be interested in the proposals of two leading national agencies, one in the United States and the other in Great Britain, each projecting a far-reaching program whereby the educational system of its own country may give effective support to the over-all plan of the Allied Nations for post-war reconstruction.

A sixty-page pamphlet, *Education and the People's Peace*, outlines a plan

proposed by our well-known Educational Policies Commission for systematic use of organized education in the effort to establish and maintain the foundations of world peace. The plan suggested contemplates a three-step program: the development in the United States of an informed and aroused public opinion with reference to the international responsibilities and opportunities of this nation, the immediate establishment of a United Nations council on educational policy, and plans for the creation of a permanent international agency for education soon after the war ends. The report outlines the structure of such a permanent organization and enumerates its principal purposes.

In close agreement with the principles enunciated in the publication just mentioned is the report of the British Joint Commission of the Council for Education in World Citizenship and the London International Assembly. It is an interesting fact that the deliberations of representatives of the Educational Policies Commission and the work of the British Joint Commission proceeded concurrently. Certainly it is not without significance that, working independently, these two groups reached strikingly similar conclusions regarding the role of education in the attainment of an enduring peace.

The British report, *Education and the United Nations*, is available for one dollar through the American Council on Public Affairs, 2153 Florida Avenue, Washington, D.C. The major di-

visions of the report consist of a detailed description of the destruction wrought in the occupied countries; an outline of possible means of reshaping education in the enemy countries; and a statement of the purposes and plans of a proposed international organization for education, which, it is urged, should be made one of the principal parts of any international authority that may be created after the war.

The underlying concepts of the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission are summarized in the concluding paragraphs of its report.

This document rests upon the fundamental conviction that the war in which the people of the United States are now engaged is a struggle for the opportunity to try again to create certain new conditions of life in every part of the world. Those desired conditions are such that peace can exist and democracy can expand. We do not think that the people of the United States will, or should, accept any less inclusive purpose as the objective to which their great efforts and sacrifices are directed.

We are convinced that a favorable situation throughout the world for the attainment of these aims depends upon the systematic and deliberate extension of educational opportunity, and the direction of this education toward peaceful and democratic ends. We are prepared to acknowledge fully that a wide variety of other considerations must enter into the making of the peace. We insist, only, that the educational considerations must not be ignored.

Concurrent with the recognition of the role of education in international policy, there must be developed a vigorous campaign to educate our own people concerning the opportunities and responsibilities which the war will place in our hands. There must be achieved an understanding of war aims and

peace aims much better than was present in 1919, and much better than is yet present. This humane and enlightened public opinion is the foundation for all the rest of the proposed structure.

Education for international co-operation cannot successfully be limited to any single nation. If it is so limited, that nation or that group of nations has no security against aggressive, non-co-operative kinds of education in other parts of the world. For that reason, it seems inevitable that there shall be some machinery for evaluating the tendencies of education in the various parts of the world.

This evaluation, together with vigorous and constructive educational leadership on an international basis, can be furnished only by some permanent agency for education. As a forerunner and a planning agency for the more permanent international agency for education, we have proposed a United Nations council on educational policy to give prompt and careful attention to the whole question of education as a war-making and peace-keeping instrument in human affairs.

If, as we all firmly believe, the United Nations soon achieve a clean-cut and unconditional military victory, the governments and peoples of these nations will hold in their grasp an opportunity that has seldom been offered before and may never be repeated. To use our next great chance more wisely than we did after 1918 is a trust that we hold alike for our honored dead, for the living, and for generations yet unborn.

Now is the time for the American people to match the varied wealth of their great resources, and the tremendous military potential of their men and their machines, with a moral and educational program of equal stature.

With an appeal for united effort to avoid the mistakes of the Treaty of Versailles, the British Joint Commission concludes:

This time, when the challenge to the whole moral and intellectual roots of our

civilization is so clearly seen, the restoration, protection, and advancement of sound education must surely be among the major tasks of those who are called upon to settle the affairs of the world after the war. . . .

We do not know what forms of organization may be established between the states, what regional federations or confederations may be formed, but we know that the world today is one society, interdependent for its well-being and for its very existence in the age of modern weapons, a world in which, as President Roosevelt has said, "there is complete unanimity of spirit among all youth, all kinds and kindreds who fight to preserve or regain their freedom. This is a development of historic importance. It means that the old term 'Western civilization' no longer applies. World events and the needs of all humanity have joined the culture of Asia with the culture of Europe and the Americas to form for the first time a real world civilization."

It is for that world, so that its unity may endure, that we must educate the rising generation, so that each may seek his country's greatness in the measure of its contribution to the world, and the day may come to which President Wilson told a committee at the Paris Peace Conference he looked forward "when men would be as ashamed of being disloyal to humanity as they are now of being disloyal to their country."

We must educate men fit for such a society while we ourselves strive to create a society fit for such men.

The principal recommendations of the British Commission are as follows:

1. That governments be asked to recognize that the urgent tasks of educational reconstruction in the occupied countries, as soon as they have been set free, must be one of the chief responsibilities of the United Nations, and

2. That, for this reason, a United Nations' Bureau for Educational Reconstruction should be appointed now to prepare, and

so far as possible put into operation, the necessary plans for meeting those needs which are too great for any one nation to bear alone.

3. That, in any period during which Germany may be occupied, the occupying powers should exercise their control over education through a High Commissioner for Education who should be appointed in advance by the United Nations and be ready to start work at the moment the occupation begins.

4. That the principal duties of the High Commissioner for Education should be to insure that the Nazi and militarist influences are utterly eradicated from German education, and to inspire, facilitate, and supervise the re-education of the German people.

5. That in order that the United Nations may remain united after the war, their peoples must be inspired by a dominating motive to build a better world and that, for this reason, it will be necessary to provide greatly extended educational facilities, subsidized where necessary by the community of nations, and education in the principles of world citizenship.

6. That for the advancement of education generally and for the promotion of education in world citizenship it is urgently necessary that the United Nations should agree to establish as soon as may be practicable an International Organization for Education and should forthwith undertake the necessary preparations for that act.

7. That such an organization should be one of the principal parts of any new international authority that may be created after the war on a world scale or for any group of states, and

8. That it should be able to draw upon the wisdom of governments, education authorities, teachers', parents', and students' associations, each of which should be represented upon it, so that it may thus combine with the authority of the governments the active participation of those upon whom will chiefly fall the task of carrying out its decisions.

The readiness with which Great Britain and the United States may meet the challenge of world-wide opportunity, particularly with respect to the sustained sponsorship of the movement to institutionalize the concept of world citizenship, will obviously depend on the adequacy of the educational systems maintained within the sponsoring nations. The ultimate intention of these nations should, therefore, find immediate expression in specific plans for the upgrading and, if necessary, for the extension or reorganization of their existing educational programs. It is a familiar fact that competent agencies in both of these countries are striving to direct the war-engendered interest in generalized social progress toward nation-wide support of a liberalized program of public education.

A forceful statement of the case for more effective equalization of educational opportunities in our own country has recently appeared as a section of one of the reports of the National Resources Planning Board. Under the caption "Equal Access to Education," this statement, with supporting recommendations, is presented in Part I, *Post-war Plan and Program*, of the Planning Board's *National Resources Development: Report for 1943*. The text of the board's statement was prepared under the direction of Assistant Director Thomas C. Blaisdell by Professor Floyd W. Reeves, with the assistance of D. L. Harley, member of the staff of the Planning Board. Noting the effects of the increasing com-

plexity of modern life, this report explains the nature of the task to be performed by the schools and lists a series of fifteen recommendations for the extension of educational opportunities to meet the requirements of the post-war period. The following excerpts from the report include the major objectives of the program outlined by the Planning Board and the recommendations which are considered essential to a realization of the ideal of equalized educational opportunities for all.

It is clear that schooling should begin early in the life of the child and continue for all at least to adulthood. From the preschool period through elementary and high school, education must be concerned with the tools of learning and communication, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the use of language—skills which are needed in all vocations. Equally important concerns of education at these levels are the day-to-day and year-to-year growth in understanding of the physical, social, and economic world in which we live, and the continuous growth in the ability of children and youth to master their own powers and to exercise them with due regard to the rights of others. The school must be a place for growth in the mastery of the tools of learning, in the arts of communication, in basic knowledge and understanding, in sound thinking, in civic interest, and in vocational competence. To achieve these ends, it must be rich within itself in curriculum and instructional materials and, in addition, must utilize its community as a learning laboratory.

Experience has shown that the task of operating such schools is one that requires a combination of abilities, personal traits, and broad understanding found only in able and well-educated persons. The professional staff must not only observe and guide the development of children but also assist the com-

munity to make wise decisions on public policy with respect to education. The staff cannot for any long period raise the level of the school much higher than the community wants it to rise.

In a post-war period of full employment, with the national income that full employment will bring, this nation can afford to provide the kind and quality of education needed by children, youth, and adults, and to give equal access to such education to all who need it or desire it. The recommendations presented below, if followed, would provide equal access to a justifiable minimum education in the post-war period.

1. That equal access to elementary and high-school education be assured all children and youth. . . .

2. That services for young children, such as nursery schools and kindergartens, be made generally available in urban areas and insofar as possible in those rural areas where the need is greatest. . . .

3. That equal access to general and specialized education be made available to all youth of college and university age, according to their abilities and the needs of society. . . .

4. That adequate provision be made for the part-time education of adults through expansion of services such as correspondence and class study, forums, educational broadcasting, and libraries and museums. . . .

5. That educational provisions for children who for any reason need special types of instruction be greatly expanded. . . .

6. That the quality of education at all levels and for all persons be made adequate to meet the needs of a democratic nation. . . .

7. That men and women demobilized from the armed forces and war industries be given opportunity to secure necessary retraining for civilian activities, or to continue their education in cases where it was interrupted by the war. . . .

8. That camp facilities be made available for all youth above the lower elementary

grades, with work experience provided as a part of camp life. . . .

9. That meals at school, and supervised work and play projects and other services before and after school hours, be made available to all children who need them. . . .

10. That an extensive program of building construction and repair be undertaken to meet the needs of education at all levels. . . .

11. That school districts be reorganized to enlarge the local administrative unit and the tax base. . . .

12. That dormitories and transportation services for pupils in rural areas be greatly expanded. . . .

13. That the services of the United States Office of Education and state departments of education be expanded and developed to provide adequate research facilities and educational leadership to the nation.

14. That adequate funds be made available by the local, state, and federal governments to assure the carrying-out of the recommendations presented above.

15. That inequality of the tax burden for education within and among the states be reduced through the distribution of state and federal funds on the basis of need.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

FIVE news items are here reported to indicate the range of experimentation, investigation, and discussion which so frequently lead to curricular and administrative adjustments in the programs of the secondary schools throughout the country. These reports include examples of a community's use of the school library, the reorganization of a physical-training schedule, a wartime course in social studies for Seniors, a sociological survey of a junior high school district, and a device for facilitating guidance serv-

ice on behalf of students enrolled in terminal vocational courses at a private junior college for girls.

A library's service to patrons The library of the Dupo (Illinois) Community High School is meeting the library needs of the adult population of the community as well as the needs of its student body. Louise Anthony, librarian at the high school, describes the development of this community service in the May number of *Illinois Libraries*, the official publication of the Illinois State Library.

Before the days of gasoline rationing, the reading interests of the adults living in Dupo and the surrounding area were served in a measure by the public libraries in the near-by cities of East St. Louis and St. Louis. Miss Anthony noted, however, that parents of pupils in the high school would sometimes read the books that their children checked out of the school library. With the encouragement and co-operation of the principal, Charles Allen, she inaugurated a plan of community use of the high-school library. First, the announcement was made that the school library would be open two evenings each week for the benefit of those who could not conveniently come to the building during school hours. While this announcement did not draw people to the library in crowds, community interest increased steadily as those patrons whose needs were met by this service passed the word along to their associates and

friends. When the Red Cross asked for quarters in which to open a sewing-room for community war service, the school board allotted two rooms in the high-school building for their use. Three days each week the women of the community came to the building to sew and wrap bandages. Miss Anthony encouraged them to visit the library on these occasions, and the community use of the library increased rapidly.

Encouraged by the success of her initial efforts, Miss Anthony decided to make the library facilities accessible to the rural residents of the high-school district. As an experiment, a branch library was opened in a rural school three miles west of the high school. A collection of two hundred books was placed in this school, where the pupils gladly perform the duties of librarian. A second branch was then opened in a grocery store four miles north of the high school. As the store also houses a postal substation, the task of publicizing the library is simplified. Both of these branches have been operating satisfactorily with only a moderate amount of supervision on the part of the high-school librarian. At present Miss Anthony is working on a plan for continuing these library services throughout the year.

*Doubling
the "gym"
period*

Wartime emphasis on physical education is prompting numerous innovations in the scheduling of high-school programs with a view to better utilization of time and

facilities available for health and physical training. In the June number of *Scholastic Coach*, a plan for double gymnasium periods is described by Hazel Watrous and Lawrence S. Gates, of the physical-education department of the Stonington (Connecticut) High School.

In past years the gymnasium schedule for this high school, which enrolls about 500 pupils, included 35 forty-minute periods a week, certain girls' classes using the gymnasium during the fifth period while the other pupils were at lunch. Each class, whether for boys or girls, was scheduled for physical education three times a week in one semester, and twice a week in the next semester. The obstacles to effective physical training under this schedule were the short gymnasium period, the alternating two- and three-day weekly sessions, and the lack of time for systematic health instruction. To overcome these difficulties, a double-period schedule has been worked out for use during the school year 1943-44. Boys' classes are scheduled for three gymnasium periods of eighty minutes each week, the girls for two such periods.

On the days when a given class does not meet in the gymnasium, it is to be assembled in the auditorium with the regular physical-education instructor in charge. The exercises to be conducted in the auditorium include many of the activities carried on in the gymnasium, such as boxing, wrestling, tumbling, and various forms of dancing, the stage being adequate for these

purposes. In addition, the time will be used for instruction and demonstration in matters pertaining to health. The program will be varied, when weather permits, by conducting the physical exercises and games out of doors. Since all classes will meet five times each week, the new double-period schedule allows twice as much time for physical education as was formerly available, and a better opportunity is afforded for health instruction.

War course required of Seniors J. Lloyd Trump, the principal of the Horace Mann School in Gary,

Indiana, recently sent the *School Review* a copy of the syllabus for a new social-studies course required of all the 280 Seniors in the high school during the second semester of the school year 1942-43. The course was planned by Mr. Trump and Eunice Johns, a teacher in the social-studies department of the high school. Eight major topics form the basis of the organization of the course, the purpose being to acquaint the leaving class with significant concepts and movements associated with the present world conflict as causes, current conditions, or possible consequences.

The first topic for study is designed to orient the student in the global relationships underlying the involvement of so many nations in armed conflict. After a review of factual geography studied in earlier years, the students consider the social and economic significance of the great circle routes of

transportation and the impact of modern inventions on familiar concepts of time and distance. The second topic is concerned with the nature of war in human societies. In addition to the powerful stimulus of economic interest, consideration is given to the political motives of aggression, the methods of diplomacy, the status of international law, and the foundations of international relationships. Subsequent divisions of the syllabus introduce such topics as the effects of the war on civilian populations, collective methods of securing peace, the hazards of inflation, demobilization, and proposals relating to post-war settlement of international problems. Carefully selected references to books and periodicals provide reading materials appropriate for the purposes of the course, these to be supplemented by regular perusal of current newspaper and magazine materials. Mr. Trump and the teachers in charge of the course report satisfactory interest on the part of the Seniors generally, and it is their intention to repeat the offering in the current year.

Teachers study local conditions The Herron Hill Junior High School in Pittsburgh serves one of those less privileged areas

common to most large cities, where social disorganization and maladjustment prevail. Confronted with the usual school problems arising from a neighborhood characterized by foreign settlements, excessive mobility of population, poverty, and juvenile delin-

quency, the teachers in this junior high school made a comprehensive sociological study of the community with a view to better adaptation of the program to the needs of the pupils. The committee in charge of the survey included the following members of the faculty: Fannie Alpern Pittler, Helen M. Kiester, Charles N. Clayton, and J. Allen Figurel. Their report is presented in the March-April, 1943, number of *Pittsburgh Schools*, a bimonthly publication of the Department of Curriculum Study and Research, of which Charles E. Manwiller is the director.

The Federation of Social Service agencies in Pittsburgh provided valuable information from the records of their activities in the Herron Hill district over a long period of time. Helpful statistics were obtained from the census tracts published by the Bureau of the Census, as well as from the cumulative pupil records kept by the school itself. In addition, pupils in attendance in the winter of 1942 filled in a questionnaire formulated by the committee, which related to their leisure-time activities, home conditions, the occupations of their parents, and other personal data.

The printed report of thirty-five pages contains an interesting historical sketch of the Herron Hill section, including a description of the original settlement and subsequent developments, with statistics of shifting racial constituencies, occupational representation, and housing conditions. There is also a brief account of the establishment and growth of the Herron Hill

Junior High School. The nature of the changes taking place in the community is indicated by the enrolment statistics showing that the proportion of white children declined from 58 per cent in 1928-29 to 16 per cent at the beginning of the year 1942-43. Data secured by means of the pupil inquiry blank indicated that 47 per cent of the pupils come from broken homes, 27 per cent of the families have five or more children, and that nearly half of them live in quarters providing four rooms or fewer. Two-thirds of the pupils work for wages after school, on Saturday, or during vacation. Forty-eight per cent of the pupils are over-age for their school classification.

The recommendations of the committee stress the need for curriculum readjustments which shall give consideration to the academic, vocational, and social limitations of the pupil population; provide increased opportunities for directed study, for group activity in the home-room programs, and for guidance in social usage; and attempt to train children in attitudes and habits of self-dependence and reliability.

A chart for vocational guidance The Office of Vocational Guidance at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, recently published a serviceable guidance chart, which was prepared for the benefit of the students of that institution who are interested in terminal training for specific vocations. The chart is printed on heavy paper, thirty-three by twenty-

two inches in size, and in large enough type to be read easily when mounted or placed on the bulletin board. It is being circulated as a supplement to the May-June number of the *Stephens College News Reporter*.

Thirty-two vocational categories are listed as possible choices for which the college provides appropriate training. For each occupation there are a brief description of the types of positions for which the student may prepare and a statement of the approximate beginning salary. Recommended courses are then outlined by semesters for the two-year period of training. The programs outlined constitute a combination of general educational training and specific vocational preparation. The occupational information presented in the chart was assembled by careful investigation of current employment demands and opportunities. As changing conditions modify the requirements or possible earnings in the different vocations, the information is reported to the students by the guidance office.

PROCEEDINGS OF IMPORTANT CONFERENCES

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago is publishing the proceedings of three of the conferences which are regular features of the Department's program for summer sessions. These are the Sixth Annual Conference on Reading, the Twelfth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private

Schools, and the Twenty-first Annual Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions. The volumes of proceedings will be published under titles denoted by the respective themes of the three conferences for the 1943 sessions, namely, *Adjusting Reading Programs to Wartime Needs*, *War and Post-war Responsibilities of American Schools*, and *Higher Education under War Conditions*. Distinguished specialists in the several fields of service represented by these conferences participated in the programs. The materials provided by the papers presented to the conferences represent, in each case, a timely contribution to the solution of problems arising from conditions created by the war. In addition, consideration is given in some of the papers to current proposals for desirable adjustments in programs and procedures with the view of meeting the anticipated demands on the schools in the post-war period. Copies of the proceedings of each of these conferences may be obtained by ordering from the Department of Education, the University of Chicago. The price of each volume is two dollars.

IN PAPER COVERS

THE following citations to publications recently issued in pamphlet form are presented in recognition of an accentuated interest in general problems in the field of vocational education, in the specific field of business education, in a broadening concept of the role of geography in modern edu-

cation, and in the use of visual aids to instruction in virtually all departments of the secondary schools.

Post-war vocational training The United States Office of Education has recently published Vocational Division Leaflet Number 12, entitled *Vocational Training Problems When the War Ends*. Although presented as one of the numbers of the leaflet series, it is a substantially bound pamphlet of forty pages. The text was prepared by J. C. Wright, assistant commissioner for vocational education. On the basis of responses to an inquiry directed to twenty-five men and women experienced in business, in labor organizations, or in the administration of vocational education, Mr. Wright lists twenty-five problems pertaining to vocational education in general and a number of additional problems relating to specific types of vocational training. The latter include problems which the respondents mentioned as requiring consideration in connection with training programs in the fields of trade and industry, agriculture, homemaking, and business. Certain problems involved in providing occupational information and guidance for trainees are discussed in the concluding section of the report. Accompanying the statement of each problem listed, there is an informative comment regarding the difficulty, magnitude, or urgency of the task confronting the vocational schools, with an oc-

casional suggestion for solution. The pamphlet may be purchased through the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., at ten cents a copy.

Research in business education Researchers and teachers in the field of business education will welcome the publication of *Bibliography of Research Studies in Business Education, 1920-1940*. This list of 1,148 theses was compiled by M. Herbert Freeman, of the West Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, at the request of Delta Pi Epsilon, National Honorary Graduate Fraternity in Business Education. The references were gleaned from the series, *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education*, published by the United States Office of Education annually since 1926. The items are listed alphabetically by authors, the citation including the title of the thesis, the institution at which the study was made, the year completed, and the number of the Office of Education bulletin in which the reference appears. If the thesis has been published, the publisher is noted. As a further aid to those who may use the bibliography, Freeman has provided a subject index of more than a thousand items. If an investigator is interested in research on typewriting, for example, he will find here a listing of 240 studies on 85 subdivisions of this topic. There is also a serviceable index of institutions, the studies listed in the bibliography being noted by number and therefore easily identified. This bibliography is

published by the Business Education World, 270 Madison Avenue, New York City. The price is one dollar.

Training teachers of geography The war is naturally focusing attention upon the teaching of geography, particularly at the high-school level. In anticipation of intensified demands for thorough reorganization of social-studies programs in the secondary schools, as a result of interests developed through wartime experiences, the National Council of Geography Teachers has been studying the problem from the point of view of the preparation of teachers for effective instruction in geography in the post-war period. A special committee of the council recently formulated the "Geography Master Standards Pattern" for the guidance of teacher-training institutions, the intention being to stimulate interest in higher standards of certification of teachers of this subject. This "Pattern" is based on the assumptions that successful teaching of geography presupposes a comprehension of the philosophy and ideologies of the subject, calls for a knowledge of the subject's scientific principles, and requires adequate training in the art of "thinking and teaching geographically." The committee's report, *Standards of Certification for the Teaching of Geography in High Schools*, has been published

as Professional Paper Number 6 of the National Council of Geography Teachers and may be obtained from Thomas F. Barton, secretary, at Southern Illinois Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois.

A guide to free films The Educators Progress League, with headquarters at Randolph, Wisconsin, has issued in mimeographed form the third edition of "Educators Guide to Free Films." This document lists 2,056 items, 1,044 of which are 16-mm. sound films. The remaining items include varying quantities of other types of films, as 16-mm. silent, 35-mm. sound and silent, and slide films. The selections include appropriate visual materials for all areas and levels of instruction. The listings are grouped according to subject matter, such as applied arts, science, social studies, wartime education, etc. Following the title and mechanical description of the film, there is a brief annotation to indicate the nature of the content. A source index provides all necessary information for ordering the films desired. Forty new agencies have been added since the publication of the "Guide" last year. The compilation is the work of Mary Foley Horkheimer and John W. Diffor, visual-education director at Randolph High School, Randolph, Wisconsin.

NELSON B. HENRY

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NELSON B. HENRY, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, presents extensive factual evidence which tends to demonstrate the superiority of the four-year over the three-year junior high school. WILLIAM H. JOHNSON, superintendent of the public schools at Chicago, Illinois, reports high-school graduates' responses to a questionnaire designed to reveal their opinions in regard to the values of the school's offerings. PAUL B. JACOBSON, principal of the University High School, assistant professor of education, and director of radio instruction in the Naval Training School at the University of Chicago, advocates means whereby the schools may help relieve the current manpower shortage and, at the same time, make work experience a vital, permanent part of the educative process. R. W. EDMISTON, professor of education and director of the Division of Practical Arts, School of Education at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, reports the procedure followed and some of the conclusions reached by a group of Ohio teachers who met to study and evaluate the numerous emergency

changes currently recommended to educators. FRANK H. GORMAN, director of the Department of Elementary Education at Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana, outlines the steps in a positive procedure which he recommends for teaching upper-grade and high-school pupils to read efficiently. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh, presents a list of selected references on guidance.

Reviewers of books CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College. LT. COMMANDER E. C. CLINE, now educational planning officer of the Service School, United States Naval Training Station, Great Lakes, Illinois, and formerly principal of the Senior High School, Richmond, Indiana. ABRAM VANDERMEER, member of the staff of the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago and director of visual education at Englewood Evening High School, Chicago, Illinois. HERBERT H. HELBLE, principal of the Appleton High School, Appleton, Wisconsin. FRANCES F. MAUCK, assistant professor and chairman of the Textiles and Clothing Division, Ohio State University. ALICE LOHRER, instructor in the Library School at the University of Illinois.

THE SUPERIORITY OF THE FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

LEONARD V. KOOS

University of Chicago

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FIRST FACTS ON THE NEW UNIT

IN AN article written near the thirtieth anniversary of the establishment of the first junior high schools,¹ Tuttle posed certain "imperative" problems involved in appraising this member of the family of educational institutions. In presenting the problems, he refers to a "strong movement" for further reorganization—the movement that promises to yield the 6-4-4 plan, including an elementary school of six years and "eight years of secondary training [equally] divided between what will undoubtedly be called the high school and the college." Tuttle insists that the solution of this problem as it affects the junior high school "requires facts." It is the purpose here to present facts concerning the new lower secondary school unit. While the particular evidence may or may not be along the lines Tuttle had in mind, it at least affords the first factual description of any considerable number of the four-year junior high schools now in operation and the first comparison of four-year and three-year junior high schools.

It seems to the present writer that the factual description and compari-

son undertaken are additionally desirable because the attention which has been given to the 6-4-4 plan in educational literature and discussion has been too largely focused on the upper of the two units. If the space available would permit, it would be possible here to support by evidence the assertion that, even among administrative officers in systems operating this newest pattern of school organization or in systems in which it is contemplated, the changes to be wrought in the lower unit are much less often under consideration than are those in the upper unit.

SCHOOLS OF THE COMPARISON²

Numbers of schools and sources of information.—Seventeen four-year and just twice this number of three-year junior high schools are represented in the present comparison. (One of the schools counted as a four-year unit was, at the time of the inquiry, operating as two two-year units, but it is here counted as a four-year unit because these two units were in some respects a unified organization.) The four-year schools include all but two of the nineteen such schools in sys-

¹ Harold S. Tuttle, "Has the Junior High School Kept Its Promise?" *Clearing House*, XIV (January, 1940), 263-66.

² The author acknowledges the competent assistance of Ralph E. Walton, at this writing in the armed forces, in the analyses and tabulations made for the study.

tems operating on the 6-4-4 plan. Information concerning the four-year schools was gathered by interview and on an eight-page mimeographed schedule filled out by the principal of each school. The interviews took place at the time of visits which the writer made to all but a single one of the seventeen schools. Information concerning the three-year schools was obtained on schedules only. These schedules, except for the omission of the eighth page, were identical with those used for the four-year schools. Visits were made to only a small proportion of the three-year schools because the writer, over a long period of years, has made firsthand contacts with upwards of two hundred such institutions.

Enrolments of the schools.—Experience in earlier comparative studies of schools suggests that the internal make-up of schools is so extensively influenced by their enrolment as to render it imperative to control this factor in identifying the three-year junior high schools to be included. In light of this experience, one of the larger projects of the National Survey of Secondary Education—the comparison of reorganized and unreorganized secondary schools¹—went so far as to control this factor by comparing schools of equivalent enrolments *per grade*. This detail of procedure was regarded as essential in a comparison of

schools including widely varying numbers of grades, such as two-year junior high schools, three-year junior high schools, six-year secondary schools, etc. Another project of the National Survey of Secondary Education found size of enrolment to be a more important factor of differences in make-up of schools than was selection on the basis of superiority in one or more significant aspects of school organization.²

In the present investigation the four-grade junior high schools are compared with three-grade schools the total enrolments of which are on a par with the enrolments in Grades VII, VIII, and IX of the four-grade schools. The purpose of this procedure is to ascertain differences in features of junior high schools that may be attributable to the addition or presence of Grade X in the schools.

The comparison according to enrolments is made in Table 1. A first glance at the distributions of the two groups suggests similarity. This impression is corroborated by examination of the various measures at the foot of the table. While all but one of the measures are larger for the four-year schools, the differences are small in relation to the enrolments. A more definitive test of the similarity of the distributions is to be found in the critical ratio of the difference between the

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, Part I. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

² Emery N. Ferriss, W. H. Gaumnitz, and P. Roy Brammell, *The Smaller Secondary Schools*, p. 235. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

mean enrolments computed by means of a formula presented by Holzinger.¹ The resulting ratio is 0.64, which may be understood to indicate that the difference is not significant or is probably due to chance.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF FOUR-YEAR AND THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO SIZE OF ENROLMENT IN GRADES VII-IX

Enrolment in Grades VII-IX	Four-Year Schools	Three-Year Schools
1,200-1,299	1	1
1,100-1,199		1
1,000-1,099	1	2
900-999	3	4
800-899	1	4
700-799	2	1
600-699	1	4
500-599	3	3
400-499	1	5
300-399	4	9
Total	17	34
Largest	1,280	1,258
Smallest	313	317
Third quartile	925	888
Median	650	600
Mean	685	650
First quartile	425	394

To afford some understanding of the effect on the total enrolments in the four-grade schools of the presence of Grade X, it may be reported that the enrolments in this grade in the seventeen schools ranged from 112 to 400, with an average of 233. The mean total enrolment in all four grades of these schools was 918, while the range of total enrolments was from 444 to 1,680.

¹ Karl J. Holzinger, *Statistical Methods for Students in Education*, p. 236. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928.

Distribution by states.—Eleven of the seventeen four-year schools are parts of school systems in California, as follows: Compton, 5; Pasadena, 3; Pomona, 2; Ventura, 1. Of the remaining six, three are in Kansas (Parsons, 2; Pratt, 1) and one each in Missouri (Jefferson City), Oklahoma (Bartlesville), and Mississippi (Meridian). Thus the seventeen schools are distributed to five states with a major concentration in California. The distribution of the three-year schools is as follows: six each in California, Indiana, and Ohio; three each in Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, and Michigan; and two each in Minnesota and Missouri. Almost all schools of both the four-year and the three-year groups are in California and the Midwest.

RESULTS OF THE COMPARISON

Phases of the comparison.—The respects in which the four-year and the three-year junior high schools are compared comprehend major features of the school organization. These features include the program of studies, extra-curriculum, schedule, teaching and administrative staff, material facilities, guidance program, and library. Evidence is here presented on all but the last two features in this list.

The program of studies.—Analysis of the programs of studies yielded Tables 2 and 3, which report, respectively, the total and average number of courses offered in each grade and in all grades and the average number of courses offered in each subject group. The first

of these tables shows the average number of courses made available in Grades VII-IX in the four-year schools to be 45.65 and in the three-year schools, 38.32. There is also a favorable difference in the four-year schools for each of these grades considered separately. The average for

TABLE 2

TOTAL AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF COURSES IN PROGRAMS OF STUDIES OF 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Grade and Type of School	Total Number of Courses	Average Number of Courses
Grade VII:		
Four-year.....	204	12.00
Three-year.....	375	11.03
Grade VIII:		
Four-year.....	231	13.59
Three-year.....	417	12.26
Grade IX:		
Four-year.....	341	20.06
Three-year.....	511	15.03
Grades VII-IX:		
Four-year.....	776	45.65
Three-year.....	1,303	38.32
Grade X.....	347	20.41

Grade X has also been included, since some of the courses represented must on occasion, in order to serve the needs of individual pupils, be made available to pupils in Grade IX and sometimes to those in even lower grades of these schools.

The comparison by subject groups discloses, rather consistently, larger averages for the four-year schools. The exceptions are the groups of social studies, mathematics, and science, which are fields made up more largely

than others of courses required of all pupils, thereby necessitating smaller offerings than are needed in fields which are predominantly administered as electives, or variables. The some-

TABLE 3

AVERAGE NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED IN GRADES VII-IX IN THE DIFFERENT SUBJECT GROUPS AND IN ALL SUBJECT GROUPS IN 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Subject Group	Four-Year Schools	Three-Year Schools
1. Language arts:		
English.....	6.18	4.59
Foreign language.....	1.77	1.65
All language arts....	7.95	6.24
2. Social studies.....	3.29	3.44
3. Mathematics.....	3.71	3.74
4. Science.....	1.94	2.44
5. Practical arts:		
Industrial arts.....	6.29	4.35
Home arts.....	4.82	3.68
Commerce.....	1.47	1.12
Agriculture.....	0.35	0.15
All practical arts....	12.93	9.30
6. Fine arts:		
Art.....	2.82	2.53
Music.....	7.24	5.82
All fine arts.....	10.06	8.35
7. Health and physical education.....	4.00	3.32
8. Guidance.....	1.77	1.50
All subject groups....	45.65	38.32

what larger difference in science than in other groups, in favor of the three-year schools, seems to reflect the better vertical spread of work in this field permitted by the additional year.

From the more extended offering in the four-year schools, especially in such fields as the practical arts and the fine arts, one may infer a program af-

fording enlarged opportunities for enrichment and exploration—purposes which have been, over a long period, associated with junior high school education. The inference is reinforced by the presence in the four-year schools of the elective offerings in Grade X, which, as has already been suggested, must on occasion be made available also to pupils in grades below Grade X.

The inference of enrichment of the offering by including Grade X in junior high schools is underlined also by information from another source in this study. On a supplementary sheet of the schedule filled out by principals of the four-year schools only, they complied with a request to list the courses offered in their schools that were not available in the antecedent three-year junior high schools. A number of the principals answered merely "all courses listed for Grade X" (in the main portion of the schedules). Others listed specific courses. A complete tabulation of these courses will not be included here. Instead, some impression of their nature and the frequency with which they were named will be given by a few statements concerning them. The courses most recurrently listed are the usual academic requirements in Grade X, namely, English, world history, biology, and geometry. However, the remainder of the long list has representation from many subject groups, with the great majority in the newer instructional areas. Among courses reported once or oftener are "additional" foreign language, general

language, news-writing or journalism, speech arts, dramatics, stagecraft, advanced art, mechanical drawing, architectural drawing, machine shop, metal shop, homemaking under federal aid, "cooking for boys," home problems, advanced foods, general business, and typewriting.

The extra-curriculum.—The extra-curriculum has characteristically been accounted a salient feature of junior high schools. The schedule used for the present study requested the preparation by principals of full lists of extra-curriculum organizations and activities. Although evidence is at hand concerning both athletic and nonathletic organizations, report will be here restricted to the nonathletic. The organizations given in the lists were classified under the large groupings to be found in the left-hand column of Table 4, which contains also the average number and the percentage in each classification in the two groups of schools. Scrutiny of the table for the larger differences between the two groups of schools finds them to be in the first, second, and seventh classifications of organizations. The average numbers and percentages are larger for the four-year schools in (1) "Pupil-government, school-service, and honorary organizations" and (2) "Social, moral, leadership, and guidance organizations." They are larger for the three-year schools in (7) "Special-interest clubs."

Speculation over the explanation of these differences suggests that it needs to be no more remote than the pres-

ence of Grade X in the four-year schools and the single year of added age of these pupils. The increased maturity of this grade makes more appropriate the more extensive develop-

TABLE 4

NONATHLETIC EXTRA-CURRICULUM ORGANIZATIONS IN CERTAIN GROUPS IN 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

GROUP OF ORGANIZATIONS	FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS	
	Average Number	Per Cent*	Average Number	Per Cent*
1. Pupil-government, school-service, and honorary organizations.	4.00	27.6	2.88	21.0
2. Social, moral, leadership, and guidance organizations.	2.47	17.1	1.50	10.9
3. Departmental clubs.	1.17	8.1	1.26	9.2
4. Publications and journalistic groups.	0.70	4.9	0.68	4.9
5. Dramatic, literary, and forensic organizations.	0.58	4.1	0.70	5.2
6. Musical organizations.	0.82	5.7	1.11	8.2
7. Special-interest clubs.	4.70	32.5	5.55	40.6
Total.	14.44	100.0	13.68	100.0

* Computed from the original total numbers of organizations in each group and not from the average numbers appearing in this table.

ment in the four-year schools of Groups 1 and 2 and the less extensive development of Group 7 or, conversely, the more extensive development in the three-year schools of special-interest clubs. It is of considerable moment to note that, even thus early in the movement for four-year junior high schools, they are found to be cap-

italizing in the extra-curriculum the greater maturity of pupils in Grade X. Greater differences may be expected as principals and teachers in these schools become increasingly aware of the possibilities in the presence of this grade in the school. It may be gratuitous to point out that this inherent superiority of the four-grade junior high school is especially significant at a time when our schools are being re-examined with respect to their adequacies and inadequacies in educating for citizenship in a democratic society.

The schedule.—Facts available concerning the daily schedules in the two groups of schools relate to the length of the school day, the number of periods in the school day, the length of the pupil's day, and the length in minutes of the class period. Information on the second and the third of these items is presented tabularly and on the first and the last without tables. The mean lengths of the school day are not far from identical, being 320.9 minutes in the four-year schools and 322.4 minutes in the three-year schools. At the same time, as may be seen in Table 5, the four-year schools tend to have a smaller number of class periods per day. The mean of the pupil's day, shown in Table 6, is longer in every grade of the four-year schools than in the corresponding grade of the three-year schools and in the four-year schools remains almost uniform from grade to grade, whereas in three-year schools it experiences a sharp drop between Grades VIII and IX. Tenden-

cies to differences in the length of class periods may be indicated by reporting that 88.2 per cent of the four-year schools and 64.7 per cent of the three-year schools have periods of more than fifty minutes.

The superiority of the four-year schools, as concerns the daily schedule, resides in the fact that they tend more nearly to coincide with preferred current theory and practice in this feature of school organization than do the three-year schools. Although the length of the school day in the two groups approaches identity, the pupil's day in the four-year schools is practically equivalent to the school day. In the three-year schools, however, the pupil's day is shorter than the school day. Hence one concludes that the pupil in three-year schools has more undirected time. The class periods tend to be longer in the four-year than in the three-year schools—a fact in harmony with the longer pupil-day in the former schools. Finally, the four-year schools continue the same length of pupil's day throughout the unit, while the three-year schools appear more often to be adhering to the traditional difference between the schedules of pupils in Grades VIII and IX in schools in 8-4 systems. There is nothing in the nature of youth of these ages that calls for sudden change in matters of scheduling between these two grades. The four-year school seems thus better able to break with tradition in scheduling.

Teaching and administrative staff.—The evidence assembled concerning

the staffs of the schools concerns mainly three aspects, namely, the education of teachers as indicated by degrees held, the sex representation

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF CLASS PERIODS IN THE SCHOOL DAY

NUMBER OF PERIODS	FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS	
	Number of Schools	Per Cent	Number of Schools	Per Cent
8.....			5	14.7
7.....	3	17.6	4	11.8
6.....	13	76.5	23	67.6
5.....	1	5.9	2	5.9
Total	17	100.0	34	100.0

TABLE 6

MEAN LENGTH OF PUPIL'S SCHOOL DAY IN EACH GRADE OF 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

GRADE	MEAN LENGTH (IN MINUTES) OF PUPIL'S DAY	
	Four-Year Schools	Three-Year Schools
VII.....	318.6	282.9
VIII.....	318.6	283.2
IX.....	314.3	256.5
X.....	316.4

among the teachers, and the administrative officers available. The numerical and percentage distributions of all teachers in sixteen (of the seventeen) four-year schools and in thirty-three (of the thirty-four) three-year schools are reported in Table 7. The four-year schools are seen to have an appreci-

ably smaller proportion of teachers without degrees and a markedly larger proportion with higher degrees (mostly the Master's degree), at the same time that they have almost as large a proportion with the Bachelor's degree. The inference is that the four-year school tends to bring to the pupils instructors with more extended preparation than does the three-year school, in all probability through in-

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN 16 FOUR-YEAR AND 33 THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF PREPARATION

MEASURE OF PREPARATION	FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Without degrees.....	33	6.1	88	10.4
With the Bachelor's degree.....	338	62.6	561	66.3
With higher degrees...	169	31.3	197	23.3
Total.....	540	100.0	846	100.0

fluence of the presence of pupils in Grade X.

The distribution by sex of the teachers in the two groups of schools is as follows: four-year schools—men, 41.1 per cent, and women, 58.9 per cent; three-year schools—men, 37.4 per cent, and women, 62.6 per cent. The proportion of men is not strikingly larger in the four-year schools, but the difference suggests a trend induced by the presence of Grade X and by the enrichment, already reviewed, of the program to serve the pupils in this

grade. The proportion of men may also be favorably influenced by the athletic program, which is more extensive in these schools (not to be reported *in extenso* in this article) than in the three-year schools. It is not contended here that the greater proportion of men teachers makes for superior instruction in the four-year schools. The advantage is that the larger proportion of men makes for a more nearly normal social situation in which there is a closer approach to equal representation of men and women instructors.

Responses of the principals made possible computation of the average number of administrative (including guidance) and supervisory officers in the two groups of schools. The average for the four-year schools is 2.5, and for the three-year schools 2.0, such officers per school. The difference is probably to be explained chiefly by the greater total enrolments of the four-year schools.

Special rooms and facilities.—Reports by principals on the special rooms and facilities available in the plants used by their schools have been assembled in Table 8. The categories in the left-hand column are those supplied in the schedule, which also listed most of the special provisions under all categories excepting the last (introduced to catch all remaining provisions not readily classifiable under the first five groups). The usual types of special provisions in the first, second, and fourth groups will be known to the reader without special explana-

tion. Under "Other special classrooms or laboratories" were listed art and music rooms, specialized science (biology, for example) and general-science laboratories, typewriting rooms, etc. The term "General" used for Group 5 signifies rooms or facilities for general use, such as auditoriums, stages, study rooms, etc.

The average total number of different special rooms and facilities is significantly larger for four-year than for three-year schools. The groups contributing most to the difference in favor of the four-year schools are "Other special classrooms or laboratories" and "General." The difference in favor of the three-year schools for "Physical education and health" is much more apparent than real, first, because a larger proportion of three-year than of four-year schools have combined gymnasium-auditoriums and, second, because of the large proportion of four-year schools in California where, more than elsewhere, it is the usual thing to provide outdoor facilities. Such facilities were not named in the schedule, and it is certain that some principals overlooked inserting them. If report had been made on these, the total differential in favor of four-year schools would have been larger than that reported.

Principals of the four-year schools were asked to name the facilities that had been added in the school "as a result of the introduction of Grade X." It will suffice for present purposes to report that among the facilities listed were biology or general-science

laboratories, additional shop space and equipment, mechanical-drawing rooms, typewriting rooms, band and choral rooms, stage equipment, library enlargement, and more extensive athletic facilities. Response to this request, like the evidence compiled in Table 8, parallels closely the evidence on the program of studies

TABLE 8
SPECIAL ROOMS AND FACILITIES PROVIDED
IN PLANTS OF 17 FOUR-YEAR AND 34
THREE-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

GROUP OF SPECIAL ROOMS AND FACILITIES	FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS	
	Num- ber	Aver- age	Num- ber	Aver- age
1. Industrial arts	94	5.5	178	5.2
2. Homemaking	78	4.6	153	4.5
3. Other special class- rooms or labora- tories	98	5.8	135	4.0
4. Physical education and health	100	5.9	214	6.3
5. General	69	4.1	116	3.4
6. Other special facili- ties	9	0.5	18	0.5
Total	448	26.4	814	23.9

and the extra-curriculum and suggests that the housing of the four-year schools is being expanded to accommodate the enriched program being provided in them.

The program of guidance and library.
—As previously stated, the investigation also included inquiry concerning guidance programs and libraries. The chief reason, other than limitations of space, for not reporting the evidence on these features in some detail is that differences in these features for the

two groups of schools are equivocal. Although certain of the differences are in favor of the four-year schools, others are favorable to the three-year schools, or the differences found are hardly appreciable. One anticipates that the guidance programs of the four-year school, because it operates through an additional year, lend themselves to more effective development than do those of three-year schools, but, in these early stages of the four-year junior high school movement, the full development has not yet taken place. The situation concerning libraries must be analogous, and more time will be required to bring library services in the four-year schools up to their inherent possibilities.

PROS AND CONS AS SEEN
BY PRINCIPALS

The supplementary page in the schedule, previously mentioned as having been filled out by principals of the four-year schools only, asked them to set down the advantages and the disadvantages that they see in the four-year as compared with the three-grade junior high school. The request met with generous response, particularly in respect to advantages. An attempt to classify these put them into four groups, namely, (1) advantages arising from the program (the curriculum and extra-curriculum), (2) those concerning the pupils and guidance, (3) those relating to the teaching staff, and (4) a scattering of others.

The principals note a broadened and enriched curriculum offering. In re-

ferring to the extra-curriculum, they make much of what they are convinced is the advantage of more mature pupil leadership and the consequently higher level of effectiveness of the organizations and activities. In respect to pupils and guidance, they commend the age span in the four-year school because it "carries pupils through early adolescence" and makes possible continuity of the guidance program. It is their opinion that the four-year school attracts a staff with higher qualifications. Scattered claims relate to the greater prestige of a school that has older pupils and the economy of a plan that retains pupils of Grade X in a less expensive school. It seems almost superfluous to point out that most of the advantages claimed are closely geared to the aspects of superiority of the four-year schools which have been identified in the foregoing factual comparison.

Several principals set down no disadvantages or stated simply, "There are none." The only disadvantage mentioned by any considerable proportion of these principals which is not of purely local or transitory nature concerns the greater range of ages in the four-year school. However, only one principal, who said, "Sometimes we think that the difference between Grades VII and X is too great," among those who suggested this disadvantage, failed to write it off by some qualifying statement like, "It is more apparent than real," or "But they seem to get along beautifully together." One of this group wittily re-

marked that this disadvantage is "mentioned by professional people outside the system."

THE UPSHOT OF THE INQUIRY

The general conclusion from this comparison is that the four-year junior high school is a better unit than is the three-year school, which, in turn, holds an established superiority when compared with corresponding grades of the older 8-4 pattern. The facts of this study bring under notice a curriculum of greater enrichment and expanded possibilities of exploration. They disclose a development in the extra-curriculum of organizations and activities that capitalizes the greater maturity of the pupils in Grade X, thereby affording more experience in leadership of, and participation in, affairs of social significance that comport with needs in a democratic society. They point to encouragement of a schedule more in keeping with preferred modern theory and practice. They show a trend toward a better prepared instructional staff, more nearly balanced in representation of men and women, and a more nearly adequate administrative staff. They indicate augmentation of the plant to accommodate the enriched program of instruction and activities. These elements of superiority have already emerged during the young lives of these new units and, rather automatically we may be sure, before many administrators and teachers were fully aware of the possibilities. When

these units have had a history as long as that of three-grade schools, the four-year schools will expand the differentials now in their favor and will manifest superiority in all other features of their organization.

The four-year junior high school is, to be sure, the almost inescapable companion of the four-year junior college, although one can imagine school systems in which one of these units may exist without the other. The future of the lower of these two units is, therefore, almost wholly dependent on the acceptability of the upper unit. The superiority of the four-year junior college is decreasingly a matter of mere opinion, as accumulating evidence indicates numerous advantages of the four-year unit over other types of junior colleges.¹ It now appears that the post-war years will demand a junior college of greater vertical range and general breadth and flexibility of program than have been typical of, or possible in, two-year units. Individuals and groups making plans for the reorganization of education to meet the needs of youth in the post-war years should give serious consideration to the advisability of establishing the four-year junior college and its almost inevitable consort, the four-year junior high school. By such establishment they will be taking what seems to be the appropriate next step in the evolution of our school system.

¹ Leonard V. Koos, "Organizational Relationships of Junior College and High School," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XVIII (July, 1943), 399-407.

GRADUATES EVALUATE THEIR HIGH-SCHOOL EDUCATION

WILLIAM H. JOHNSON

Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois

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THE efficiency of high-school education is measured not so much by the character and success of teaching procedures, nor by the marks secured from tests based on textbook content, as by the kinds of lives that young people lead after graduation. Not the process but the product should be considered in estimating the worth of any educational program; and, in the reconstruction of courses, organization, and procedure, the value which young people ascribe to their high-school education should be given careful attention.

In the hope of obtaining significant information on which to base an evaluation of the curriculum in the Chicago high schools, 30,179 questionnaires were sent to recent graduates of these schools. During 1941 and 1942 responses from 12,425 graduates were received in reply to the question: "What assistance did you obtain from the high school that has helped you get along with people, with your job, and with schools you have attended since graduation?"

Since the goals or aims of the secondary schools are subjective in character and more or less intangible in the minds of those recently graduated, no single study can be expected to yield valid conclusions as to the par-

ticular types of assistance obtained from years of high-school attendance. However, some interesting comments and observations may be made from a study of the replies to the questionnaire used in this investigation.

It will be seen from the data in Table I that about one-third of the replies came from high-school graduates of 1937; another third, from high-school graduates attending day junior college; and the remaining third, from high-school graduates attending evening high school or evening junior college.

The high-school graduates of 1937 had been out of school for four or five years at the time of the follow-up study. Many of the graduates attending day junior college had come directly from the high school, and with but few exceptions those attending evening high school or evening junior college had been graduated from high school from two to ten years earlier. Thus the replies were gathered from groups with varying periods between graduation and the time of their evaluation of their high-school education.

The replies received were readily classified into nine categories on the basis of the kind of assistance that the graduates received from their high-school education. It is interesting to

note from Table 1 the values placed by each group of graduates on these various kinds of assistance. As can be seen at a glance, "Assistance in English and speech" and "Training in vocations" rated high in the opinion of the graduates, since each was mentioned in nearly one-sixth of the replies. "Benefits from extra-curriculum

One-seventh of this same group indicated that training in vocations had been of assistance, and they also thought that the help given in general culture was valuable.

Of the 4,069 high-school graduates attending day junior college, 17.3 per cent stated that training in vocations was of assistance, and benefits re-

TABLE 1

ASSISTANCE OBTAINED FROM HIGH-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY 12,425 GRADUATES

ASSISTANCE	GRADUATES OF 1937		GRADUATES ATTENDING DAY JUNIOR COLLEGE		GRADUATES ATTENDING EVENING JUNIOR COLLEGE		GRADUATES ATTENDING EVENING HIGH SCHOOL		ALL GRADUATES	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Assistance in English and speech . . .	701	17.2	499	12.3	332	17.6	497	20.7	2,029	16.3
Training in vocations	654	16.1	706	17.3	214	11.3	350	14.5	1,924	15.5
Benefits from extra-curriculum activities	448	11.0	595	14.6	145	7.7	227	9.4	1,415	11.4
Ability to meet people	476	11.7	445	10.9	289	15.3	202	8.4	1,412	11.4
Education for college and for social living	501	12.3	237	5.8	268	14.2	146	6.1	1,152	9.3
Contribution to general culture	223	5.5	434	10.7	125	6.6	300	12.5	1,082	8.7
Training in social education	225	5.5	399	9.8	145	7.7	192	8.0	961	7.7
Formation of good habits	329	8.1	226	5.6	133	7.0	129	5.4	817	6.6
Aid in securing employment	205	5.1	141	3.5	67	3.5	62	2.6	475	3.8
Indefinite replies	302	7.5	387	9.5	171	9.1	298	12.4	1,158	9.3
Total	4,064	100.0	4,069	100.0	1,889	100.0	2,403	100.0	12,425	100.0

activities" and "Ability to meet people" were each mentioned in more than one-tenth of the replies.

Further significant facts can be gleaned from this table of percentages. Replies from every group mention English and speech as being of special assistance. The replies from 2,403 high-school graduates attending evening school reveal that one-fifth of them had received assistance from the instruction in English and speech.

ceived from extra-curriculum activities were mentioned by 14.6 per cent.

A further classification into academic, social, and vocational types of assistance may be made. (1) English, general culture, preparation for college, and the formation of good habits may be considered as types of assistance in an academic sense. (2) English, general culture, formation of good habits, training in social living, cer-

tain benefits from extra-curriculum activities, and ability to meet people may be considered as types of assistance of a social nature. (3) English, formation of good habits, ability to meet people, training in vocations, and aid in obtaining employment may be considered as contributions from a vocational standpoint. On the basis of the overlapping of the three categories, 40.9 per cent of the replies indicated assistance of an academic nature; 62.1 per cent, of a social nature; and 53.6 per cent, of a vocational nature.

Academically, the graduates of each group were most enthusiastic about the aid that their English and speech courses had given them, and a good percentage of two of the groups (the graduates of 1937 and those attending evening junior college) thought that they had been well prepared for their college work.

As for vocational assistance, the courses listed by the graduates as having been of most value to them in securing and keeping jobs were, in order of frequency of mention, machine shop, stenography, typewriting, and electricity. Many graduates stated that the career classes and vocational guidance had helped them in securing training in the fields in which they had aptitudes; and, of course, the advice and opinions of all the teachers with whom they had had contacts contributed much to the selection of the kind of work desired.

Conferences of businessmen and pupils in school assemblies and panel

discussions arranged by the department of occupational research and the placement bureaus were very helpful in aiding young men and women not only to find employment but also to select desirable fields of employment following graduation. Many reported that the first job was taken because of necessity and that the vocational training received in school had not aided them in securing work in that particular field. Therefore it became necessary for them to secure additional training while in service. The value of the vocational work taken in high school became more apparent in securing the second and third jobs. Some of the graduates' answers to the questionnaire showed disillusionment with regard to the ideas they had entertained prior to their graduation about their first jobs and about the places that they would occupy in the business, social, and civic life of their community and city. This disillusionment indicates that they should have given more serious and practical thought to their professions or vocations. Most of the answers to the question, "What kind of work do you wish for your life work?" fell into the professional group; yet many of the pupils had not taken courses which would have prepared them to follow this choice, nor were they studying at the time of the survey. Their choices reflected either wishful thinking or lack of proper counseling and indicated that, as students, these graduates were not at all realistic about their plans for the future.

More than two thousand graduates stated that their high-school education had contributed to their general culture and social education. This response is not surprising because the school is a cultural center, but it is interesting and encouraging to discover that so many young people were conscious of this abstract kind of assistance. Their responses to the questionnaires gave evidence of the fact that, since their graduation from high school, they have felt the need of maintaining proper decorum, of being courteous and considerate of others, of being appropriately dressed; and they look back with gratitude to the training that they received in high school in refinement of manners and habits. They reported that those school activities which enabled them to understand people, to meet others pleasantly, and to respect individual wishes and thoughts were class discussions, social programs, and participation in student councils, personal service groups, and other club activities.

Graduates also feel that certain qualities of leadership which are of value to them socially were developed through many of the extra-curriculum

activities of the schools. Those activities closely related to the management of the school were mentioned most frequently as contributing to this objective of school work. They include participation in the student council, work on school newspapers and annuals, participation in organized social affairs, membership in musical organizations, and participation in the personal service groups.

While the school cannot be held solely responsible for the social and the economic fitness of its students, it is held largely responsible. A careful analysis of this survey gives revealing information with regard to the extent to which the schools have met the varying needs of the boys and girls who attended them. It is impossible to measure exactly all the results of an educational program, for the value of a graduate's high-school training will not be evident immediately but will unfold with the years. However, it may be seen from the foregoing data that, in the opinion of 12,425 graduates, the educational program of the Chicago public high schools has offered worth-while academic, social, and vocational opportunities to all.

HIGH SCHOOLS AND MANPOWER

PAUL B. JACOBSON

University of Chicago

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SINCE December, 1941, almost every day has brought additional news of labor shortages in the shipyards of Seattle, the orchards and truck farms of the west coast, the dairy farms of Wisconsin and Minnesota, and the armament factories of Detroit, Buffalo, and a hundred other industrial areas throughout the United States. The press reports that miners have been released from the armed forces to increase the production of copper in Montana. Women are being recruited to enter war production, and the barriers to the employment of Negroes are beginning to crumble. The enrolment of boys in the high schools of the United States decreased by 6-10 per cent from October, 1941, to October, 1942. This decrease occurred, not because the high schools were less effective, but because the demand for workers increased tremendously.

To the complacent educator this loss in enrolment brings the painful realization—stated by the student of social trends but long unheeded by most educators—that the basic reason why the high-school enrolment doubled every decade from 1890 to 1930 and increased tremendously after the latter date was largely the fact that the work of young people was not

needed. The productive capacity of the nation has increased manyfold over the decades; and, as our economic order came to require fewer workers to produce a given volume of goods, more young persons were freed from work. These youths attended school because there was nothing else for them to do, because it was a pleasant place peopled by other adolescents like themselves, or because they, their parents, and their teachers believed it would increase the individual probability of "getting ahead in the world."

With the drafting of eighteen- and nineteen-year-old men into the armed forces early in 1943, there has been an immediate demand for fifteen- to seventeen-year-old boys and girls to replace the young men in the service occupations in the community or to replace older workers who have been drawn out of the community into direct war production or the armed forces. The extent of this drain on the high schools will depend largely on the length and the severity of the war. How school men can minimize the withdrawal is discussed later in this article.

War is a temporary episode, however. In the years which follow the

armistice, the results of the war will accentuate some of the trends in employment noted in this article—trends which carry heavy implications for the schools. Although school men are rightly preoccupied with the immediate war demands and are concerned about the trend in school enrolments, they have a heavier obligation to prepare the school during the war years as best they can to provide for the needs of young people during the days of readjustment and reconstruction. One of these obligations is to fit young people to work at the jobs which are or will be available in our society.

TECHNICAL PROGRESS AND EDUCATION

The progress which has been made in industry and agriculture has enabled men to produce more per hour than they had produced in years past and has thus released young people from the necessity of work. A detailed discussion of the conditions has been presented in a study of the National Research Project,¹ in which it was demonstrated that each man-hour of work produced 22 per cent more in 1936 than it did in 1929. If the year 1919 is taken as the base, the output per man-hour had increased 80 per

¹ Harry Magdoff, Irving H. Siegel, and Milton B. Davis, *Production, Employment, and Productivity in 59 Manufacturing Industries, 1919-36*, pp. 64-69. Studies of the Labor Supply, Productivity, and Production, Report No. S-1, Part I. Philadelphia: Works Progress Administration, National Research Project on Reemployment Opportunities and Recent Changes in Industrial Techniques, 1939.

cent by 1936, and output per employee 43 per cent. These are the average trends for the whole group of fifty-nine industries which were examined. The rate but not the direction of change differed in individual industries. These comparisons indicate the increased efficiency of industrial production and foreshadow a shortening work day. The same trend is apparent in agriculture, where production per man increased nearly 40 per cent from 1909 to 1929.² In commenting on agriculture, Baker says:

The average American farmer, after allowing for the services of the hired laborer, in addition to feeding three other persons in his family, now provides food and fibers for twelve people living in American cities or elsewhere than on the farm and two more persons living in foreign countries, a total of eighteen in all.³

The 1940 Census shows that these trends have continued. In many industries output has increased, but the number of employees either has declined or has increased more slowly than has productivity. The thrilling story of war production has undoubtedly accelerated these trends since 1940. It seems quite probable that we may maintain our annual increase of 4 per cent in productivity per man-hour through the 1940's. Unless new jobs are found or some way is discovered to

² O. E. Baker, "Utilization of Natural Wealth: Part 2, Agricultural and Forest Land," *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, p. 100. Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 98.

use the energy of young people, we shall face after the war an increase in unemployment of youth very much more serious than that of the 1930's. Planning on a national scale can avert such a calamity.

These facts do not necessarily mean that there will be less work to be done. As a matter of fact, the proportion of persons over ten years of age who were employed was slightly larger in 1930 than in 1920, with a decline in child labor. This condition resulted from a great increase in the service occupations and, to a smaller extent, in the professions; and this increase may be expected again.

JOB TRAINING NEEDED

For most youth, training in specific skills for a particular job is less important than are work experience, attitudes toward work, and work habits. For example, a recent sampling study which covers 28 per cent of the gainfully occupied population, believed to be representative of 70 per cent of all American workers, reveals that "over two-thirds . . . [of the jobs] demand of the workers who perform them successfully *nothing* beyond an elementary-school education."¹ This fact argues that specific trade training, while of undoubted value for a few young people, is not the answer for the vast majority of youth. What they need is work experience, vocational guid-

ance, placement, and an understanding of vocations and their possibilities. The argument that work experience, habits, and attitudes are more important than specific skills gains force when one considers the amount of training necessary to perform the tasks of the usual job.

Employers stated that, in the case of two-thirds of the occupations, workers assigned to jobs could reach full production in a week or less and that only 10 per cent required six months or more training on the job.² Clearly the school has only a restricted responsibility in the field of intensive and specialized training for specific occupations. One must, however, differentiate carefully between vocational training for a specific occupation and vocational education. The former is intensive training for a single occupation; the latter is devoted to occupational orientation and the development of versatility. As such it is part of general education—an inescapable responsibility of all schools seriously interested in preparing youth to meet the problems which they inevitably face in adult life.

Certain technical fields or highly skilled occupations require relatively long periods of training. The expert stenographer requires a long training period. The training of a toolmaker or of a diemaker is a long and arduous process which may be begun in a secondary school and continued for years in industry under apprenticeship. For

¹ Howard M. Bell, *Matching Youth and Jobs*, p. 56. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

² *Ibid.*, p. 58.

the workers in the highly skilled occupations, such as repairmen on dynamos or mechanics who repair gasoline or Diesel engines, and for persons who enter the professions, relatively long periods of preparation are imperative, either in secondary schools and higher institutions or in industry supplemented by schooling. But data at hand indicate that only slightly more than 6 per cent of our gainfully employed workers are engaged in the professions and that only one-eighth are engaged as foremen or skilled workers.¹ About one-sixth are engaged in clerical occupations, but in no sense can all of them be classified as skilled workers. For nearly half of the young people in the United States there is no alternative to employment as unskilled or semi-skilled laborers.

It may be argued that the school has a limited responsibility to furnish work experience since the skills necessary on most jobs can be learned in a week or less. But the young person must know how to work; for, in a recent survey of 4,740 occupations in 40 industries, "employers stated that the successful performance of almost exactly two-thirds demanded at least some work experience."²

¹ Alba M. Edwards, *A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers of the United States*, p. 7. Washington: United States Bureau of the Census, 1938.

² Floyd W. Reeves, Howard M. Bell, and Douglas Ward, *American Youth Faces the Future*, p. 31. Problems in American Life, Unit No. 2. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies, 1942.

WORK AND EDUCATION

The present is a particularly propitious time to make work a part of the school organization. The labor of boys and girls is sorely needed to help solve the manpower shortage in many communities. Unless school men make it possible for high-school boys and girls to work and to remain in school, thousands of young people, especially those in the lower economic groups, will quit school. Oakland, California, is one of the communities which has made administrative and curricular adjustments whereby young people can assist in solving local manpower shortages and yet continue their educational training.³ These pupils work part time and go to school part time. In this community and in many others, the experiences during the war years will make work experience—necessary in getting a job—so firmly a part of the school organization that it will probably remain as a permanent feature.

Many young people are forced to drop out of school for economic reasons. In fact, the surest sign of how long a young person will attend the "free secondary school" is the family income, as determined by the occupation of the father. If work experiences are provided (if the school articulates these experiences with the in-school experiences), many students will be enabled to stay in school. For others, opportunity to stay in school must be furnished through subsidies.

³ "Work-Study Development in Prospect," *School Review*, LI (April, 1943), 198-200.

It is a waste of human material and a denial of democracy for young people who could profit from further training to be obliged to drop out of school for lack of funds. The cost to the individual or his family of staying in the "free American secondary school" was determined to be \$125 a year in several schools in the Middle West and the East.¹ While this figure must be accepted as tentative until more extensive studies now in progress have been completed, it is clear that an expenditure of this magnitude constitutes a serious problem to the great majority of American families enjoying annual incomes of fifteen hundred dollars or less.

Undoubtedly many persons from such families require assistance through increased family incomes, opportunities to earn the money necessary to remain in school, additions to the free services provided by the school (and an increase in public-school costs), or subsidies in the form of scholarships for the very able. It is not the purpose here to argue for one plan against the others, or to indicate which plans are most desirable in the long view. The purpose is to point out once again that, unless scholarships

are available or unless work is provided, thousands of students will terminate their school careers before graduating and never again will enter the school.

Certainly the school should see to it that able children do not leave school during the war crisis merely because the school program is so inflexible that school and work cannot be articulated.

If the demand for war workers becomes so serious that thousands of children must discontinue school attendance to take their places on the production lines, the discontinuance must be based on ability, not on family income. Since no funds are available at this writing to keep the able but poor children in school, the only alternative is to organize the school program as has been done in Oakland, California, and elsewhere so that those who must work can continue in school. Furthermore, children who are under no financial necessity to work should be encouraged to set the example of carrying their school work in half-days and working the other half, so that the pride of the children from the lower economic groups will not cause them to discontinue school entirely.

WORK EXPERIENCE AND THE MANPOWER SHORTAGE

The present manpower shortage has given more young persons a chance to do real jobs than has been the case in a decade. Some girls in wealthy homes have taken over housework to release servants for war production. Other girls have taken over the entire man-

¹ Harold C. Hand, "Americans Must Have Genuinely Democratic High Schools," *General Education in the American High School*, p. 19. Edited by a Sub-Committee of the General Education Committee, Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, B. Lamar Johnson, chairman. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

agement of a home as both father and mother entered the victory program. Literally thousands of young people have taken jobs in the community and in the war plants on a part-time basis to help solve the manpower problem. Thousands of city boys have migrated temporarily to the farms to assist in cultivating and harvesting the food crops.

Some young people have always worked while they attended school—delivering papers, clerking in stores, or performing other tasks. Ordinarily the school ignored the work experience and failed to make it a part of education except for certain of the projects in vocational agriculture, home economics, or diversified and distributive occupations. The heartening result of the manpower shortage is that forward-looking school men are furnishing “co-ordinators of work experience” who will articulate many forms of work with the school program. For example, in Ithaca, New York, where seventy-five young persons were released from school to assist in the post office during the Christmas rush, the work experience was co-ordinated with the school work by a series of preliminary conferences in which the young people learned what kinds of tasks were performed in the post of-

fice, what the student worker would do, and some factual data about the service. They also summarized their experiences when they returned to their classes. The resultant was an educative experience because the school had articulated it with the regular program.

This article disclaims being an exhaustive list of the means whereby young people can best be fitted into the productive economy of our nation. It is readily conceded that work experience, a good general education, vocational information, the ability to do a specific task, adequate counseling, placement in the job, follow-up on the job, and retraining or upgrading in industry and the schools are all minimum requisites in a satisfactory plan for vocational adjustment. This article has attempted to highlight one aspect of the problem: the importance of work experience in this program. It frankly states that the present manpower shortage offers a golden opportunity to make work a part of the educative process. It advocates using the schools to help relieve the manpower shortage and, at the same time, to make work experience such a vital part of the educative process that it will remain no matter how difficult may be the days ahead.

KEEPING UP WITH EDUCATION

R. W. EDMISTON

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

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THE flood of publications recommending changes in education during the emergency appears overwhelming to the personnel of the schools, which are facing increased obligations with decreasing staffs. Some clashes of opinion should have been expected when a group of public-school people in an Ohio city—elementary-school teachers, secondary-school teachers of various subjects, and school principals—formed a study group to attack the problems presented by the many suggestions for adjusting education to the emergency. Proposals which are questionable from the standpoint of educational principles do not escape the comments of experienced teachers. Some of the opinions expressed and the conclusions reached by this study group are described in the following pages.

ISSUES CONSIDERED

As soon as the selection of topics for consideration was attacked, the relative emphasis to be placed on education for war and on education for peace became an issue. After some discussion, both the topics "Youth in Defense" and "Youth after the War" were included in the agenda. Examination of pertinent literature indicated that these two important topics were

not receiving similar stress in actual recommendations for adjustments in the public-school program.

It appeared that an old delusion was the basis for some of the recommendations that have been made. When traditional content in the public schools was first attacked, research was reported to show that the content under attack resulted in some desirable adjustments. After a time it was pointed out that almost any subject matter can produce some learning results and that the content should stand on its ability to provide as much desirable learning as would the recommended replacements, or possibly more. Present suggestions should be submitted to a like evaluation.

Some of the readings were interpreted to imply entrance of agencies other than the school board into the formation of local educational policy, and of persons other than the school administrators into the execution of the policy. It appears that, although the evaluation of suggested policies may be difficult, such appraisal should remain in the hands of those finally responsible for the resulting outcomes. Likewise, in administration, the school head must remain the executive if he retains responsibility for results. He cannot permit individuals or groups to

assume that, because they made the first proposal, they become independent directors of any program accepted by the school.

Added responsibilities placed on the board and on the chief executive mean more delegation of authority by the executive. Again, he must be the official to whom those given authority are responsible. In the main, therefore, the authority must be delegated to his staff and not to persons who may deny their responsibility to him.

When the topic "The Necessary Civil Restrictions of War and Measures To Check Inflation" was introduced for study, the problem of the use of the schools in various campaigns came under discussion. A member of the group made the appropriate statement that butter can be spread so thin that not only the taste but also the vitamins and the calories vanish.

"Health and Physical Fitness" was accepted as one topic after proposals had been made for separating the two subjects. When definite opinions opposed to the physical-hardening program were expressed, some members of the group pointed out that adverse reactions were due to poor judgment in the inauguration of these programs. Others used these oppositions as examples of the difficulty in changing from a peace to a war point of view and, therefore, as arguments for such programs.

"Propaganda," "Why We Fight" (including "The Democratic Way"), "Air-Mindedness," and "World-Mindedness" completed the topics ac-

cepted for study. These led to a discussion of new courses versus new units in old courses. Naturally teachers of various subjects wish their subjects to be continued. Some are willing to adjust the content by replacement, but others at least imply former scarcity of materials by proposing additions with no deletions. The North African campaign saved the subject of French when it was about to be replaced by Spanish in one of the represented schools. Some reports of proposed units for existing high-school subjects were judged to be attempts to retain these subjects since the relation between unit and subject was slight, if present at all. Likewise, some new courses suggested differed only in name from courses of long standing. The group concluded that many of the problems which have always been appropriate to certain subjects may now be given the desirable emphasis formerly denied them.

Naturally the question arose of the return to much factual learning and of the stress on rote rather than logical memory and reasoning. Some materials examined certainly emphasized the knowledge of the answer rather than a consideration of data and formulation of solutions. Others, however, lent themselves to projects and direct attack. In spite of the fact that the outcome may designate the method, most groups of teachers seem to include representatives who have their favorite methods. Someone remarked that the simplest principles of the psychology of learning are ignored by the sugges-

tion that factual information will lead to new ideals.

When the methods and the materials proposed for adjusting the school curriculum to present needs were appraised in the light of educational psychology, the principle of recognizing individual differences was seen to be neglected. It is still doubtful that all pupils can become mathematicians or scientists. Even more unlikely of attainment is the suggestion that all pupils be developed into citizens with possibilities of great statesmanship. There were indications that these two objectives were being stressed by groups with particular subject-matter interests or by proponents of "all-out for war" and "all-out for peace." Perhaps belief in mental discipline and in transfer of training is not so outmoded as educational and experimental psychology imply.

The group concluded that all suggestions for educational changes should be tested by the criticisms outlined above.

REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

Some planning is necessary to make even the sources of the pertinent literature available. The entire faculty should be enlisted in order that the individual teacher's burden may be lessened. The task of reviewing the literature can be divided by school subjects, by school organization, by specified topics or objectives, or by a combination of these. Thus, "Music in the Emergency Program," "Extra-curriculum Emergency Programs," and

"Curriculum Adjustments To Emphasize Tolerance" offer examples of assignments from the first three standpoints, respectively. A combination of the first and the third methods would be found in the assignment "Adjustments in Geography To Emphasize Tolerance," a specific objective within a school subject. When each teacher is responsible for one topic and, in addition, calls the attention of the entire group to materials related to other topics which he comes across in his reading, the results should be of real worth.

If certain publications could be selected and divided among the group, another method of keeping up with the recommended changes would result. In this case each participant would need to be more conscious of the entire school program and its effects on each colleague's field or division. This procedure, with a preliminary consideration of sources, might be more efficient than some other methods since duplicate sources could be eliminated in defining the individual responsibilities.

The experience of the study group indicated that the following were some of the important sources in the preparation of bibliographies.

Education for Victory, published by the United States Office of Education, is an essential reading. State and local school publications are desirable for interpretation of local situations.

Information concerning the armed forces should be taken from their publications, and these must be the latest issues. The materials concerning the

Army, the Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Coast Guard, necessary for the counselor alone, make a rather large collection. The fact that these materials are mainly of concern to the boys does not mean that the only new publications for the counselor concern the boys alone. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois, are publishing timely materials adapted to the general topic "Youth in Defense."

These broader considerations introduce another must: continuous selection from the weekly list of the Government Printing Office. These bulletins are inexpensive and provide material on all timely topics.

The following agencies in Washington publish valuable study materials: United States Office of Education, National Education Association, American Council on Education, Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, Department of Agriculture, Department of Labor, Federal Security Agency, and the Office of War Information. From New York come valuable aids from the Foreign Policy Association, Council against Intolerance in America, Public Affairs Committee, Council for Democracy, Commission To Study the Organization of Peace, and the National Association of Manufacturers. The Julius Rosenwald Fund in Chicago has valuable educational materials.

Many private concerns offer contributions of value. The insurance companies, many food producers, and the various airlines are examples. The *Bulletin* of the American Library As-

sociation provides a list of "Sources of Free and Inexpensive War Materials"¹ and a "Source List of War-related Publicity Materials."²

References to supplemental readings are given in many of the books discussing the present and the future responsibilities of education. Books on the application of the shop to vocational needs of the emergency, textbooks in mathematics for the emergency, pre-induction vocational materials, and textbooks for pre-flight training are being issued by most of the educational publishers.

The various publishing companies will offer suggestions of materials, although few had prepared lists when this group made its requests. Letters asking for bibliographical help must be very definite as to subjects or topics of interest, stress the school level or levels under consideration, and perhaps submit examples of appropriate materials. Book companies are less generous than formerly in providing sample copies, but tables of contents will usually give enough information to determine whether copies of particular titles are desirable.

Teachers are familiar with educational, scientific, and current-events magazines. There are too many of these to list, and distinctions are difficult to make since these journals vary with purpose. This study group felt

¹ "Sources of Free and Inexpensive War Materials," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXXVII (January, 1943), 22-25.

² "Source List of War-related Publicity Materials," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXXVII (February, 1943), 42-46.

that these publications should be reviewed for topics of present concern. It was also suggested that the vocabulary of many periodicals is beyond that of the school levels at which their use is desirable. This finding emphasizes the wisdom of definitely preparing magazines for the school level at which they are to be used.

There are several things to remember in soliciting materials. If posters and films are desired, mention that fact in the inquiry. To assure clear understanding, state the use to be made of the materials. Give age or grade level for which they are intended. Distinguish between vocational and general materials. Perhaps the warning is not amiss that much duplication and superfluity of materials exist and that, if efficient education is the real purpose, one should not merely become a collector without careful discrimination.

TRANSLATING SUGGESTIONS INTO ACTION

An agency with some personnel appears necessary to put into practice the needed educational adjustments. This job requires the full time of an organization each member of which is well informed concerning the many factors in the emergency and is an outstanding specialist in the educational fields in which he must make practical decisions. The following procedure might exemplify the working of the organization.

There would be an executive body

to produce the final reports of the group. Suggestions which came to the executive body would be accompanied by data from various examining committees. The first evaluation should be made by a group which keeps in touch with emergency needs and with the agencies that study or control these needs. After this evaluation, any resulting recommendations for educational adjustments should be considered by a second committee of in-school specialists and by out-of-school specialists in related fields to determine whether the educational program could be adjusted to the occasion and how the adjustment could be made. Some member or members of this or a separate group should be well acquainted with the general school organization and with the resources of all types in order that the recommendations may be fitted as specifically as possible to various public schools. Suggested materials and sources for carrying out any proposals made should accompany the recommendations. This duty may be performed by a new group or may be a part of the obligation of the first committee.

Specialists in the psychology of learning and child growth should examine the resulting report and add their estimate of the appropriate school level for the proposed study and the suitability of suggested materials. With these data in hand, the executive body should be able to keep the public schools advised of desirable adjustments and practical ways of making them.

TEACHING UPPER-ELEMENTARY AND HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS TO READ

FRANK H. GORMAN
Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana

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TEACHERS of the upper-elementary and of the high-school grades are becoming increasingly concerned with the problems of teaching children at those levels to read effectively. They are seeking information, advice, and assistance. The movement represented by this increasing interest is important, for it constitutes a significant trend in present-day educational thinking and practice.

Most of the emphasis has, so far, centered in remedial reading. This point of view needs to be modified. The corrective program is important, but it is not enough. It is a negative emphasis, while what is wanted is a positive instructional procedure in the classroom. A positive procedure makes it possible for regular teachers in each of the curricular fields to teach the pupils to read more effectively in that area. It makes for continued growth in reading power and facility and for success in the situations in which reading is necessary. Moreover, it enables the classroom teacher to meet most of the reading needs of the individuals in the group. The significance of these advantages can hardly be overrated.

What is positive instructional practice? It is that manner of conducting

learning activity which makes achieving in the classroom attractive, challenging, and successful. It consists in the application of a few guiding principles and certain steps of procedure.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF POSITIVE PROCEDURE

The principles offered here are four of the few which teachers need to bear constantly in mind in teaching children to read content in the upper grades and in high school.

Emphasis must be placed on teaching the child to read efficiently. Many teachers in the upper-elementary grades and in high school tend to stress reading as a content subject. They ignore the fact that reading is a pattern of skills and abilities which the child applies in obtaining information from the page. They forget that it is a process, not a body of content. While the learner reads with the intention of satisfying his purposes, the teacher must look to the task of teaching him to read better. The problem is to help the child improve and apply effectively the reading skills and abilities needed in study and in leisure activities. This problem leads to the next principle.

Teaching children to read must be

continued in all the grades and in all areas of the curriculum. This principle should be kept constantly before every teacher of children above the primary grades. It cannot be given too much stress. The process of learning to read goes on as long as the individual continues to extend his reading experience into unfamiliar areas and levels of difficulty. Anyone who has had the experience of reading in an unfamiliar field or at an untried level of difficulty understands this fact. Until he grasps the meaning of the new vocabulary, until he adjusts himself to the style of writing and the format of the page, the reader has to go through the experience of learning to read in that subject. For example, a child may be fully capable of reading eighth-grade history and yet be quite at sea when confronted with the unfamiliar vocabulary and style of the materials of ninth-grade science.

Because learning tends to be specific, direction is needed if transfer is to occur. There is little reason, therefore, for a teacher to assume that even a superior reader at one level of difficulty or in one field will be capable of reading efficiently, without some direction, at a different level or in an unfamiliar area. Teachers of every class in which reading is necessary must be conscious of their obligation to follow the positive procedure of giving the pupils direction in the new situation.¹ When direction is given in

the new situation, the next principle must be employed.

Instruction in reading must begin at the learner's present level. Growth is a continuous process. The child who has reached a certain stage of development in reading can make little further progress if the succeeding steps are skipped. For example, the pupil who can read only intermediate-grade material cannot be expected to comprehend content of high-school difficulty. The teacher who employs positive practices uses materials and procedures that are on the level of the learner. Such a teacher will challenge all levels of ability represented in the group by placing before each pupil content that is commensurate with his powers. Information about the reading ability of the learner may be obtained from his performance on a standardized reading test or by careful observation of his reading in the classroom.

Defective reading can be improved by positive instructional procedures in regular classroom teaching. The classroom teacher, by using proper teaching methods, can correct many cases of defective reading without resorting to special remedial techniques. Many difficulties in reading are due primarily to improper motivation and to inadequate adjustment of content to the pupil. The removal of deficiencies in

that reading in different fields is not highly related (Francis P. Robinson and Prudence Hall, "Studies of Higher-Level Reading Abilities," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXII [April, 1941], 241-52).

¹ In a study of the rate and the comprehension of reading by 205 college students in the fields of art, geology, fiction, and history, it was found

reading through regular classroom activities is, on the whole, the most satisfactory remedial measure. It permits the learner to continue with his class group and to overcome his handicap while learning with his fellow-pupils.

STEPS IN POSITIVE PROCEDURE OF TEACHING

One of the questions most frequently asked the writer by teachers of the upper-elementary and the high-school grades is: "How shall I proceed in order to get the pupils in my classes to read efficiently in the subject?" The suggestions outlined below have been found to produce results of the most successful kind.¹

Making the approach, or the assignment.—The first step in positive teaching of reading is the approach, or the assignment. In this step the important procedures are as follows:

I. Arouse interest. This may be done in the ways that teachers know to be effective.

II. Lead pupils to set up intrinsic purposes for doing the reading. This step is fundamental. The pupil who reads an article, story, or study assignment with a view to realizing worth-while personal objectives or to satisfying personal interests, whether they are self-derived or adopted, gets

the most from his reading and is able to apply it to the best advantage. Furthermore, he acquires the invaluable habit of establishing useful purposes for his reading and of applying them as he engages in the act. The purposes may be in the form of questions to be answered, general understandings to be acquired, and other types of objectives.

III. Provide for individual differences by the following methods.

1. Apply appropriate materials. This may be accomplished in two ways.

a) Provide materials of a range sufficient to meet the abilities of all the members of the group. Two of several usable methods may be mentioned. If there is sufficient time, the pupils may make a search for related materials of a suitable range of difficulty. Another method involves the practice of making, from a number of previously selected sources, a differentiated assignment which includes a basic requirement easy enough for all as well as a series of steps of increasing difficulty and enrichment.

b) If the variety of source materials is greatly limited, make appropriate assignments from the textbook or the limited materials. This plan involves assigning to the slower pupils those parts of the content which they can comprehend without a great amount of assistance. They are held responsible for the contributions that they can make by reading a specific portion of the content, and they are enabled to acquire the other ideas by listening to

¹ J. T. Worlton, "The Evaluation of Reading Instruction in the Intermediate Grades," *Appraising the Elementary-School Program*, pp. 402-4. Sixteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. National Elementary Principal, Vol. XVI, No. 6. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1937.

the discussion or reports of the other class members. Unless the textbook is unusually difficult, there is ordinarily some of it that can be read with fair comprehension by a pupil not extremely below normal for the grade. These parts must be pointed out to him, however, for he himself is not likely to realize that he can gain anything from the assignment. The normal and the superior readers are directed to study the complete assignment.

2. Give pupils help with anticipated difficulties. In this step lies one of the most valuable elements in the positive approach. Technical terms and phrases and other new words which are particularly important should be pointed out and studied briefly.¹ Less common reading activities, such as interpreting graphs and statistical tables and reading footnotes, should be called to the attention of all the pupils and special practice provided where needed. Children usually cannot be expected to give voluntary attention to all these matters.

3. Call attention of pupils who need it to the nature of the specific skills and abilities to be applied for effective results. In some cases this step will

amount merely to giving a word of caution. In others it may require some specific practice.

Guiding the reading act.—The second phase of positive teaching of reading is guidance in the reading act. One of the paramount factors in the proper direction of effective reading is insistence upon two readings of any assignment.

The first reading is one of the greatest aids to effective comprehension. It should be a rapid survey to sense the general nature of the content and the position and attitude taken by the author. An understanding of the character of the selection and of the style, intention, and attitude of the author is needed for a clear interpretation of the content. For example, if the pupil recognizes that the author is biased or intends to be humorous, sarcastic, or impersonal, he is greatly assisted in making his interpretations of the material as he reads it intensively.

The second reading is done in the manner indicated by the purposes previously determined by the learner.

Evaluating the results.—In the evaluation of the results of the teaching, there are several important steps.

I. Check for general comprehension. This may be done in a number of ways: the pupil may be asked (1) to outline the selection, (2) to list the order of the main points or the events, (3) to make or to recognize appropriate paragraph titles, or (4) to prepare a précis of the selection. An oral report or discussion is, of course, suitable.

¹ a) Robert M. Bear and Henry S. Odbert, "Insight of Older Pupils into Their Knowledge of Word Meanings," *School Review*, XLIX (December, 1941), 754-69.

b) William S. Gray and Eleanor Holmes, *The Development of Meaning Vocabularies in Reading*. Publications of the Laboratory Schools, No. 6. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1938.

II. Check on the pupils' memory and understanding of important details. Such a check may be made by (1) question and answer; (2) objective testing; (3) recitation of the details of an included event, explanation of a point or definition, or description of a scene, character, or situation; and (4) such other activities as will help the pupils to formulate clear, accurate mental pictures or concepts of what they read. It is also highly important that the learner grasp the meaning conveyed through the significant literary references, figures of speech, and idioms used. Oral reading may be needed to bring out the emotional qualities involved in the intended meaning.

III. Test comprehension of critical vocabulary. Some methods of testing comprehension of the vocabulary may include asking the pupils to state the meaning of a term in their own words, to use the word in a coined sentence, or to list or to select correct synonyms.

IV. Evaluate interpretation and application. The child's use of the new learning in his subsequent activities is the best measure of this outcome of reading. Discussion of the meaning that the reading has for him, of his impression of its values, and of his ideas of how these values may be applied to everyday living is a way to estimate the child's interpretation and possible utilization of what he gains from reading a selection.

GENERAL COMMENTS

Obviously the details of these steps should vary with the nature of the group, the field of study, and the content read. The major elements, on the other hand, must be applied consistently for good results. It is hoped that this brief explanation of a not uncommon but badly needed procedure will be found useful by classroom teachers who are confronted with the problems of teaching children to read better.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON
University of Pittsburgh

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THE war has notably affected the exercise of distributive guidance by temporarily closing entrance to some careers and by prescribing careers for all male youths who have the physical qualifications for military service. The problems of adjustive guidance reflect the impact of war, also, because home, school, and community life have become so disorganized in many localities as to result in a marked increase in pupil maladjustment and frequently to lead to juvenile delinquency. A few of the references selected for this list bear testimony to the war influence, but most of the items assume that the present social strictures are temporary and that the guidance function will normally be carried on in a society which is democratic and at peace.

DISTRIBUTION¹

416. ANDERSON, ROY N. "Review of Clerical Tests (1929-1942)," *Occupations*, XXI (May, 1943), 654-60.

Takes up each of seven tests under the captions "Description," "Evaluation" (summary of research findings as to validity, reliability, etc.), and "Where Obtainable."

¹ See also Item 541 (Emme) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1942, number of the *School Review* and Item 189 (Seibert) in the March, 1943, number of the same journal.

417. BREWER, JOHN M. "Classification of Items in Interest Inventories," *Occupations*, XXI (February, 1943), 448-51. Calls attention to several shortcomings of well-known interest inventories.

418. BURTT, HAROLD ERNEST. *Principles of Employment Psychology*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942 (revised). Pp. xii + 568.

A comprehensive presentation, including exposition and evaluation of many personnel instruments which are employed by school counselors.

419. CARDALL, ALFRED J. *A Wartime Guidance Program for Your School*. Guidance Plans and Methods, No. 12. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1943. Pp. 104.

An outstanding feature of this manual is an extended tabulation of important military and civilian jobs, showing the degree to which the following qualifications are necessary in each: intelligence (linguistic and quantitative), manipulative dexterity, sense of space relations, practical judgment, and clerical ability. Contains suggestions on how to measure the pupils' possession of these traits.

420. CROSBY, RICHARD C. "Scholastic Achievement and Measured Interests," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVII (February, 1943), 101-3.

Marked correlations were obtained between the interests of college Sophomores, as determined by the Kuder Preference Record, and college marks in subject fields corresponding to revealed interests.

421. DAVIS, HORACE LEONARD. *The Utilization of Potential College Ability Found*

in the June, 1940, *Graduates of Kentucky High Schools*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XV, No. 1. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1942. Pp. 102.

Shows that approximately half of the best college risks in the state did not enter college and that the two dominant factors which influence college attendance are economic status and proper guidance.

422. FROELICH, GUSTAV J. *The Prediction of Academic Success at the University of Wisconsin, 1909-1941*. Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, Serial No. 2574, General Series No. 2358. Madison, Wisconsin: Bureau of Guidance and Records of the University of Wisconsin, 1941. Pp. 44.

A summary of numerous researches notable for their contributions to techniques as well as to knowledge.

423. HARTSON, L. D. "School Marks vs. Mental Tests in Rating Secondary Schools: A Second Study," *School and Society*, LVII (January 16, 1943), 80-83. Data accumulated on entrants to Oberlin College over a nineteen-year period enable the author to rate a considerable number of secondary schools, showing the superiority of mental tests for that purpose.

424. HUTSON, PERCIVAL W., and WEBSTER, ARTHUR D. "An Experiment in the Educational and Vocational Guidance of Tenth-Grade Pupils," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, III (Spring, 1943), 3-21.

Reports a controlled experiment with a guidance program carried out through home-room group conferences and individual counseling, the criterion being the improvement of choices in relation to abilities.

425. KARPINOS, BERNARD D. "School Attendance as Affected by Prevailing Socio-economic Factors," *School Review*, LI (January, 1943), 39-49.

In connection with the National Health Survey, carried out in 1935-36, were collected the extensive data by means of which this article shows the relation of school attendance to family income, race, sex, and geographic area.

426. KLUGMAN, SAMUEL F. "Test Scores and Graduation," *Occupations*, XXI (January, 1943), 389-93.

Illustrates the use of tables of probabilities in predicting success at the secondary-school level.

427. LALEGER, GRACE ELIZABETH. *The Vocational Interests of High School Girls*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 857. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. vi+102.

A study of the vocational interests of high-school girls as measured by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women and the Manson Occupational Interest Blank for Women. Results were such as to cast doubt on the advisability of using these instruments with girls of high-school age.

428. MCDANIEL, HENRY B. "Guiding Youth to Service Today," *Occupations*, XXI (January, 1943), 363-68.

Describes the wartime guidance program in San Diego, California, especially with pupils of Grades XI and XII.

429. MITRANO, ANTHONY J. "The Relationship between Age and Test Performance of Applicants to a Technical-Industrial High School," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVI (August, 1942), 482-86.

Shows a marked negative correlation between chronological age and test scores on an intelligence test and on two tests of mechanical ability.

430. *Schools and Manpower—Today and Tomorrow*. Twenty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1943. Pp. 448.

A publication devoted to an exposition of what the schools can do and are doing in discovering pupil potentialities, in assisting youth to reasoned occupational choices, in educating for initial employment, and in following the individual through to satisfactory occupational adjustment.

431. SPENCER, LYLE M., and BURNS, ROBERT K. K., with the assistance of LOUIS W. SIDRAN. *Youth Goes to War*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1943. Pp. 224.

A textbook for pupils of high-school age, designed to give information on jobs in the armed forces and in essential civilian industries, together with suggestions for self-appraisal and appropriate training.

432. ZAPOLEON, MARGUERITE WYKOFF. *Community Occupational Surveys*. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 223, Occupational Information and Guidance Series, No. 10, 1942. Pp. viii+200.

A comprehensive analysis of ninety-six community occupational surveys made during the period 1930-40, with detailed descriptions of a few of them. Concludes with an outline of the "Steps To Be Taken in a Community Occupational Survey" and useful appendixes.

ADJUSTMENT¹

433. BRYAN, ROY C. "The Cumulative Discipline Record," *School Executive*, LXII (September, 1942), 12-14, 64.

Describes the use of a cumulative discipline record and justifies it as a means of overcoming certain types of maladjustment.

434. CROW, LESTER D., and CROW, ALICE. *Mental Hygiene in School and Home Life for Teachers, Supervisors, and Parents*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xii+474.

¹ See also Items 216 (Allen) and 245 (Thurston) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1943, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

A practical treatise based on the conception that the development of wholesome personalities is dependent on the day-by-day control and operation of the major factors of the educational environment, in accordance with the principles of mental hygiene.

435. HARRIS, ELIZABETH H. "The Guidance Approach to Problems of Remedial Teaching," *Elementary School Journal*, XLIII (February, 1943), 347-52.

Contains practical suggestions for solving the mental-hygiene problems frequently found to be associated with scholastic maladjustment.

436. HUTSON, PERCIVAL W., and KOVAR, DAN R. "Some Problems of Senior-High-School Pupils in Their Social Recreation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVIII (October, 1942), 503-19.

By check list and free response, 2,163 pupils stated problems, attitudes, and experiences in connection with the social recreation of the school, thus illuminating one important area of adjustment.

437. "Juvenile Delinquency in the War Period," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XVI (October, 1942), 65-123.

An entire issue devoted to discussions of the bearing of the war on juvenile delinquency, with articles by Gustav L. Schramm, Margery Fry, Eleanor T. Glueck, David M. Levy, and Paul Blanchard.

438. MCCAUL, ROBERT L. "Student Personnel Opportunities for the College Remedial-Reading Teacher," *School Review*, LI (March, 1943), 158-63.

Presents an inventory of problems associated with the reading difficulties of one hundred college Freshmen. Shows a wide variety of maladjustments.

439. MOONEY, ROSS L. "Personal Problems of Freshman Girls," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIV (February, 1943), 84-90.

Describes data obtained by the use of the author's Problem Check List (College Form) with a group of 171 university Freshman girls. Presents a personnel program for using the findings.

440. ROGERS, CARL R. *Counseling and Psychotherapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942. Pp. xiv+450.

While "counseling" and "psychotherapy" in this book are used somewhat interchangeably as "intensive and long-continued contacts directed toward deeper reorganization of the personality" and while the treatment is based notably on experience in child-guidance clinics, the exposition has high value for school counselors and teachers. The analysis of a sound counseling process is made singularly clear by the extensive use of transcriptions of phonographically recorded interviews.

441. SLATTERY, RALPH J. "Five Steps in Helping Maladjusted Adolescent Pupils Unravel Their Emotional Problems," *Nation's Schools*, XXXI (April, 1943), 22-24.

Contains practical suggestions for all school workers.

442. "A Study of Teachers' and of Mental-Hygienists' Ratings of Certain Behavior Problems of Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVI (December, 1942), 292-307.

A duplication of Wickman's celebrated study, showing "that mental hygienists and teachers are much closer together in their judgments of the seriousness of behavior problems of children than they were in 1927."

443. VAN ZANDT, MILDRED. "Please Excuse," *Educational Method*, XXII (January, 1943), 179-81.

Describes an innovation in dealing with absence and tardiness which contributed to the effectiveness of adjustive guidance and notably improved school attendance.

DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT¹

444. BERDIE, RALPH F. "An Aid to Student Counselors," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, II (July, 1942), 281-90.

Describes how the use of a problem check list enables the counselor to carry on interviewing more effectively.

445. BORDIN, EDWARD S. "A Theory of Vocational Interests as Dynamic Phenomena," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, III (Spring, 1943), 49-65. A theoretical discussion which contributes to the counselor's ability to evaluate and interpret interests.

446. "Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, Report of Conference, January 15-18, 1943, New York City," *Occupations*, XXI (April, 1943), C1-C48.

Report of a conference of the representatives of national organizations of guidance and personnel workers. Contains a summary of panel discussions, committee reports, and principal addresses on timely topics, concluded with the recommendations of the Council.

447. "Counseling Instruments Reviewed," *Occupations*, XXI (November, 1942), 266-72.

Presents concise descriptions and evaluations of the Gentry Vocational Inventory, the Kuder Preference Record, the Cleetton Vocational Inventory, and the interest essay. Bibliographies are appended.

448. CUNLIFFE, REX B.; FIELD, GEORGE; HERBERT, EDWARD; O'BRIEN, JAMES J.; and STIGLITZ, HANNA. *Guidance Practice in New Jersey*. Rutgers University Studies in Education, No. 15. New Brunswick, New Jersey: School of Education, Rutgers University, 1942. Pp. xviii+148.

¹ See also Item 249 (Burnside) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1943, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

By use of a questionnaire, the facts on guidance practice were gathered from the secondary schools of New Jersey in 1940 and compared with practice as it had been determined by the same questionnaire in 1930 and in 1935. Includes some descriptions of best practices and best programs.

449. DARLEY, JOHN G. *Testing and Counseling in the High-School Guidance Program*. Guidance Plans and Methods, Nos. 10 and 11. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1943. Pp. 222.

Describes an appropriate testing program and the essential administrative and instructional procedures underlying effective individual counseling of high-school students.

450. FAHEY, GEORGE L. "What Every Teacher Can Do for Guidance," *School Review*, L (September, 1942), 516-22.

A thoughtful, though subjective, analysis of the possible contributions of the teacher.

451. FREDENBURGH, F. A. "A Critical Analysis of Textbooks Surveying the Field of Guidance and Student Personnel," *Occupations*, XXI (May, 1943), 646-53.

By means of a somewhat objective analysis, the author presents a comparison and a ranking of fourteen college textbooks.

452. GOLDEN, CLINTON S., and RUTTENBERG, HAROLD J. *Dynamics of Industrial Democracy*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xxvi+358.

An able presentation of the principles of successful labor-management relations, illuminating many of the problems of occupational adjustment and otherwise contributing to the counselor's social orientation.

453. *Guidance Manual for the High-School Victory Corps*. United States Office of Education, Victory Corps Series, Pamphlet No. 4, 1943. Pp. vi+38.

Offers many helpful suggestions for school guidance programs, under the following captions: "Making the Pupil Inventory," "Securing and Using Information about

Critical Wartime Services and Occupations," "What the Wartime Counseling Staff Should Do," "Organization and Administration of the Victory Corps Guidance Program."

454. *Guidance Problems in Wartime*. United States Office of Education, Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 18, 1942. Pp. vi+30.

Gives special attention to the various problems in adjustive guidance which have been brought on by the war as well as to the influence of the war on educational and vocational planning.

455. HOPPOCK, ROBERT, and SHAFFER, ROBERT H. "Job Satisfaction: Researches and Opinions of 1940-1941," *Occupations*, XXI (February, 1943), 457-63.

Third in a series of biennial summaries of literature in a field pertinent to occupational adjustment. Analyzes twenty-five writings.

456. JAGER, HARRY A. "Guidance for Essential Occupations and the Armed Forces," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (April, 1943), 51-56.

A comprehensive and logical analysis of the guidance services which high schools should be currently offering.

457. KIRKENDALL, LESTER A. "Pitfalls in the Use of Tests," *Occupations*, XXI (January, 1943), 384-86.

Describes ten errors frequently made by counselors in the interpretation of test results.

458. SUPER, DONALD E. *The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xiv+286.

Presents the problems and the techniques of vocational guidance, with considerable emphasis on the economic orientation of the guidance function.

459. THOMSEN, ARNOLD. "Expectation in Relation to Achievement and Happi-

ness," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVIII (January, 1943), 58-73.

An investigation of the vocational and the financial expectations of college students, with a thoughtful interpretation in terms of a theory of happiness.

460. "Vocational Guidance for Victory: The Counselor's Wartime Manual," *Occupations*, XXI (September, 1942), 3-115.

A special number of *Occupations* prepared by the War Service Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association for the purpose of presenting pertinent information about job opportunities in war industries and in the armed services, together with suggestions for individual analysis and training. In succeeding months, *Occupations* has maintained a department for continuous supplementation of the manual.

461. WREN, HAROLD A. *Vocational Aspiration Levels of Adults*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 855. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. vi+150.

Shows that individuals strive for occupational ranks higher than the ones they hold and that vocational aspiration is related to dominance, family occupational pattern, ability, education, income, and type of education.

462. ZERGA, JOSEPH E. "Job Analysis: A Résumé and Bibliography," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVII (June, 1943), 249-67.

A brief description of methods and purposes in job analysis, followed by a bibliography of 401 items covering the literature between the years 1911 to 1941, inclusive.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDUCATION AS A TOOL OF THE AXIS.—Modern fascism has made greater use of education than has any other world force. Familiarity with the Nazi schools reveals how accurately the German war lords of this generation have estimated the importance of public education. The schools of the occupied countries have been brought under control for subversive purposes. The secondary schools and universities have been closed and the minds of youth enslaved. Mighty statesmen and warriors have been afraid of the unobtrusive schoolmaster lest his stimulating instruction might eventually bring forth a leader of the masses to overthrow the tyranny of a false protectorate.

Walter Kotschnig¹ has organized into attractive form for popular reading a formidable array of carefully validated facts concerning the Fascist crusade against education. The informational items have been culled from the pages of our metropolitan press and from the official orders of Fascist leaders in the areas of Nazi occupation. Although restraint is used in the presentation of the most thoroughly authenticated data, it becomes evident that some of the realistic details would make an ugly and terrifying picture.

Kotschnig is one of America's leading authorities on comparative education. For eight years he was secretary of the International Student Service at Geneva, and he is today a member of the subcommittee on International Education and Educational Reconstruction of the Commission To Study the Organization of Peace. He is interested

in dramatizing the period between the two world wars, contrasting sharply the nihilistic concept of education held by the Fascist usurpers and the ideal of freedom through learning held by the cultural leaders of democracy. This war is described as involving forces that are deep as well as broad, intense as well as extensive; and we are warned against believing that we are doing enough when we are buying bonds or working in munitions plants. Too many Americans are trying to escape from any serious consideration of the major issues and from the terrorizing psychology concealed in the true significance of contemporary events. We cannot save ourselves from reality by centering our thoughts and feelings on an artificial realism. We are urged to understand that the gruesome physical events of war do not touch us intimately until the spiritual meaning of the current scene is explained authoritatively.

The author of this inspired volume gives an excellent characterization of recent educational developments in France, Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Russia, and the United States. The strength and weakness of each system are portrayed. No high-school teacher in the United States can afford to deprive himself of the enlightened viewpoints presented and the critical evaluation of these expertly defined national programs. The disclosures regarding the Nazi schools have been brilliantly introduced, and the Russian adventure in the realm of popular and polytechnical education has been vividly narrated.

The "Junior Partners" of the Axis are Denmark, Norway, Holland, and Belgium. These are to be the favored countries, more highly respected than the Poles, Czechs, and Jews, and especially the Balkan peoples.

¹ Walter M. Kotschnig, *Slaves Need No Leaders: An Answer to the Fascist Challenge to Education*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1943. Pp. xvi+284. \$2.75.

The French are to be treated as if they belonged in a position midway between these two groups. All these nations have been disillusioned and driven to despair. They have been plundered of their material possessions, their bodies have been ravaged, and their souls violated in a manner dreamed impossible by even the most fatalistic residents of these countries.

More than any other institutions, the schools and the churches have suffered, and the war cannot be concluded until this contest in the realm of the intellect and the spirit has been won in a manner befitting our Christian civilization. The Nazis, the Japanese, and the Italians have a social order that denies freedom of the mind to the student and forbids independent research for the scholar. They make continuous war against truth and beauty and goodness. They overthrow ideals and aspirations. There is no humanity, no gentleness, no justice in their relations with others. They build up the body, tear down the mind, and freeze the human spirit. They have driven Europe and Asia back to the Middle Ages at their worst. They have made slaves of persons who are eminently qualified to be free and creative. They have established a system of human intercourse where leaders have no part to play, and thus they have undermined the very foundations of progress. Genius is squelched, poetry is discouraged; religion is marooned, and education is no longer required except for the diabolical transmission of a depraved ideology. This is the worst blow to human progress that has been experienced in five hundred years.

The closing sections of this volume, dealing with specific reconstruction programs in Europe and education in the post-war world, are a fitting climax to a book intelligently conceived, convincingly outlined, and eloquently written. This is a professional publication of crucial importance, and it must not be neglected.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

Pennsylvania State College

EDUCATION FOR USE AS WELL AS FOR PRODUCTION.—American education has, traditionally, emphasized the individual and his productive activities and has neglected society and personal-use problems. Education to make a good life gained prominence only in baccalaureate sermons, after education was safely beyond the reach of such impractical theorizing. Lately, for various historical and economic reasons, we have had the need and the time to think seriously about making intelligent use of our productiveness to further the better life. Ardent fad-riders and skeptical conservatives have thought about the problem with the consequent crop of half-baked and halfhearted programs. The time is ripe for an attempt to assay these programs, to consolidate whatever wisdom has emerged, and to establish a basis for constructive progress. Such an attempt¹ has been made by twenty-three pioneer workers in the field of consumer education.

In twenty chapters they deal with the historical and the philosophical bases of the problem, with actual and suggested programs in various subject-matter fields, and with devices used and materials available, and supply a very comprehensive, annotated bibliography.

The history of the movement, the description of courses and devices in operation, and the suggestions for using available materials are all competently presented. When the various contributors, however, approach the discussion of the next steps, the attack is not quite so decisive. The subtitle of the book includes the expression "future possibilities," which does not necessarily promise a clear-cut, constructive program; and the reviewer may be wrong in believing that the experience at hand, interpreted in the light of the modern philosophy of secondary educa-

¹ *Consumer Education: Background, Present Status, and Future Possibilities*. Edited by James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. x+400. \$2.50.

tion, is sufficient to justify the submission of a more far-reaching program. Several points of future policy are involved.

In the first place, shall consumer-education content be made an important part of a core curriculum, be integrated into existing courses, or be handled as a separate course? The writers seem to favor the second possibility as the main point of attack, but they are not all sufficiently vigorous in making clear that adequate consideration of consumer education along with entrenched producer education entails a complete change of point of view and a wholesale recasting of all courses, not merely a change here and there or the adding of courses or of parts to existing courses. For instance, schools must cease teaching geometry, as well as arithmetic, as if every student were to be a mathematician; the remedy is a revision of the course as a whole.

Second, the narrow, *caveat emptor*, negative connotation that has, unfortunately, attached itself to consumer education is pervasive in the book. The broader, personal-use aspect, emphasizing the good life attained by increased, positive, more intelligent utilization of our magnificent productive capacity, is advanced but is not consistently held forth as the over-all objective. One aspect of this objective, kindred to the one just noted, is rather fully treated: a real understanding of the consumer movement requires that it be seen as part of the vast economic and political problems with which we are currently wrestling.

Finally, timorous and indifferent teachers will hardly be encouraged by the admonitions to be careful of arousing pressure-group animosity and by the suggestion that public support be assured before consumer materials are introduced. A timid, publicity-arousing questionnaire about a theoretical, piecemeal program is just as likely to cause trouble as is a brash, belligerent approach. A matter-of-fact revision of the curriculum on the basis of the broad, personal-use objective will succeed far better than either of the

extremes. The community will have little objection to such a program, will even be interested in adult and community programs of the same sort.

In summary, this book is the best treatment to date of consumer education for those educators who want a very simply written, concrete, and practical discussion of methods, devices, materials, sources, and special problems involved. It will be equally valuable both for those who direct teacher-training courses and for teachers in the field.

E. C. CLINE

Lt. Commander, U.S.N.R.

*United States Naval Training Station
Great Lakes, Illinois*

EDUCATIONAL RADIO IN WARTIME.—In periods of national crisis there often is a tendency toward increased interest in the operation of national policies, agencies, and institutions. This tendency, so far as the whole field of communication is concerned, is clearly manifested in the proceedings of the thirteenth annual radio conference¹ sponsored by Ohio State University. The major portion of the book concerns two topics: "Radio in Wartime" and "Educational Uses of Radio." The subject of "Radio Public Relations" is discussed in a somewhat shorter third section.

The general section on "Radio in Wartime" contains much of especial interest to those who are concerned about the influence on public opinion exerted by sponsored radio programs. Official and unofficial representatives of education, industry, radio, and the government discussed the contributions to the war effort made by radio news reporting and radio drama. The criticisms and defenses that frequently characterize these groups were well stated.

C. P. Nettels, professor of history at the

¹ *Education on the Air*. Thirteenth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by Josephine H. MacLatchy. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1942. Pp. x+310.

University of Wisconsin, stated that the effect of radio advertising in connection with the broadcasting of the news has been overwhelmingly on the side of isolationism, that this affiliation has made it difficult for the United States to take an active and responsible part in world affairs, and that it has tended to distort the news through selection and arrangement of content in order that the advertiser's product may be associated with something pleasant and agreeable. Lyman Bryson, of the Columbia Broadcasting System, replied that probably not 50 per cent of those who complain about advertising with news could identify the sponsors of news broadcasts. Dr. Louis Berg described the psychiatric implications of the emotional tensions resulting from listening to daytime serials. Several conference participants answered with allusions to the emotional tensions aroused by such great works as Shakespeare's *Hamlet* and the music of Ravel.

Mr. Kaltenborn spoke for the right of qualified news commentators to criticize the government and stated his opinion that the American public is not "sufficiently intelligent to decide on the basis of the news what it wants to think or what it ought to think . . . is not sufficiently well informed on foreign affairs, on the ways of propaganda, and on the detailed events of this war to be able to come to any intelligent conclusion on the basis of constantly contradictory information" (pp. 76-77).

In the discussion of educational uses of radio for children, educators criticized the quality of children's radio programs and the amount and character of the advertising carried with such programs. Broadcasters and writers replied that the accuracy of advertising claims is carefully checked before being broadcast, and these workers expressed their interest in hearing suggestions for better programs. In the discussion of recordings for school use, answers were given to many questions of practical importance to educators. Sources of transcribed materials, problems of in-service training in the use of radio and

recordings, the peculiar educational contributions of transcriptions and radio programs, and standards for play-back equipment were among the topics discussed. Additional sections dealt with the teaching of radio-program discrimination, teacher education in the use of radio, the Negro and education by radio, radio in civilian defense, and religious broadcasting in wartime.

Education on the Air contains discussions of a wide range of problems. To one who is interested in the attitudes and opinions of the various groups concerned with educational radio in its broader aspects, this issue of the proceedings, as well as the twelve previous volumes, is extremely worth while. Perhaps from no other source could one obtain so fascinating and helpful a picture of the important issues in education by radio, the groups and personalities arrayed on opposing sides, the general trend of thought regarding the issues, and the possible implications of various attempts to reach an agreement on them. A wide variety of views and interests is expressed. Many of the statements made are relatively undocumented, but most of them are thought-provoking.

ABRAM VANDERMEER

University of Chicago

PROVIDING YOUTH WITH INFORMATION ABOUT THEMSELVES AND THE WORLD OF WORK.—The greatest contribution that our schools can make to democratic society is to develop persons of "top" quality. The war gives new point to the ever-present, crying need for such persons to improve our group life—persons who can do, who can understand, who have convictions.

To enable high-school youth to develop personal and vocational efficiency and understandings through objective evaluation of (1) personal assets and liabilities, (2) present and future trends of work needs, and (3) tried and accepted means of presenting personal assets effectively to the right employers is

the purpose of an accurate and well-written volume.¹ The style will have distinct appeal for adolescents because of its easy, informal, conversational approach. It talks directly to, not about, youth. The pages are replete with the everyday language and the experiences of American youth and with interesting and illuminating thumbnail sketches of incidents of vocational significance taken from the lives of well-known characters, such as Ford, Kettering, Kaiser, McClure, Marconi, and others.

The book helps the student to discover career aptitudes by diagnosing his assets and liabilities and appraising his "inside" and "outside" self, and to recognize his dominant and secondary interest and ability patterns as well. Worthy of mention also is the inclusion of personal and vocational self-inventory questions and tests, with answers and ratings, and several "mirror measurements"—all of which enable the sincere and interested youth to see himself more nearly as he actually is. Another interesting item is an anticipation of post-war vocational needs and their "up" or "down" opportunity trends. "If You Can Think Well," "If You Get Along Well with People," "If You Can Use Your Hands and Tools with Ease," "If You Want To Increase Your Personal Efficiency" are headings illustrative and characteristic of the trend of thought.

The last eight chapters of the book, dealing with job placement, contain many detailed and valuable suggestions for helping the student prepare for an interview, fill out application blanks, write letters of application and "position-wanted" advertisements, and conduct himself effectively during the interview. Stress is laid on the importance of personal appearance, of behavior and habits, and of frequent self-checking of one's character traits and progress on the job.

This book is equally valuable for person-

nel counselors and clinicians, classroom teachers, school administrators, librarians, and parents. With its nontechnical approach, it does not presume to be comprehensive in its treatment of personnel functions. Nonetheless, it succeeds admirably in presenting the problems of vocational guidance, namely, (1) understanding the individual, (2) understanding the world of work, and (3) bringing these two together in a useful relationship.

The importance of a variety of vacation work experiences for the individual youth might have been given greater stress. The reviewer also would ask: How far is it the responsibility of the school to help create *new* vocational opportunities for youth? The authors might have made a major contribution had they explored their suggestion, "What can I do that has not been done before?" In the kaleidoscopic vocational picture there is much room for the frontier thinkers in action. Discovering and developing our chief natural resource—American youth—is still largely an unanswered challenge.

HERBERT H. HELBLE

*Appleton High School
Appleton, Wisconsin*

HOME ECONOMICS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.—The authors of a new textbook² present home economics as the study of good management in individual and family living. This book, planned for senior high school work, provides a basis for a two-year course. The eight units survey all areas of homemaking: home management; personal, social, and family relationships; child care; personal grooming; clothing; foods and nutrition; consumer buying; and home furnishing.

The method of presentation includes general discussion of attitudes and responsibilities; specific information, activities, and skills basic to good management; and evalu-

¹ Esther Eberstadt Brooke and Mary Roos, *Career Guide: For Young People and All Who Counsel Them*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. x+274. \$3.00.

² Fern Silver and Mildred Graves Ryan, *Foundations for Living*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. x+616. \$2.12.

ations of results. The discussions are directed to high-school girls, many of whom, in a short period of time, will be responsible for homes of their own. The broad scope of the units brings out the breadth and variety of the phases of homemaking. The development of the contents is a blend of the abstract, such as attitudes, with the concrete, such as information and skills.

The first unit, "Personal and Social Relationships," takes advantage of the high-school girl's immediate interest in herself and her relations with associates, family, job, and country. The second unit, on "Home Management," is brief but challenging. It provides a basis for development of interest, as well as for further work, in specific phases of home economics. The remaining units deal with products, such as foods and clothing, or with skills, such as consumer buying and child guidance and care. At the close of the units appear excellent lists of activities and well-selected bibliographies related to the problems discussed. These supplements stimulate the reader to wholesome thinking concerning her responsibility for attitudes and activities in different areas of living.

In some chapters essential facts are presented in conventional, logical order rather than in the order of student interest. For example, in the chapter on foods the following order is used: classification of foods according to composition, use in the body, caloric values, and mineral and vitamin content; adequate diets; meal preparation; and hospitality and service. In the war situation the immediate problem of food management is maintenance of adequate diets, which might have been used as the introduction to the study of foods.

In some areas of discussion the result might have been more effective if the areas had been presented only as management problems, the student being left with the responsibility of obtaining information and developing skills. The book presents essential factual information and discussions of basic skills, but in neither case is the treat-

ment detailed or thorough. To illustrate, the chapter on clothing would have been stronger if it had been thoroughly developed as a problem in management without including a discussion of processes and techniques of garment construction. As it is, the treatment of processes and of technical skills is sketchy and therefore may give a misleading idea concerning the seeming ease with which processes are handled and skills developed.

The homemaker's responsibility to community organizations and for community development is mentioned where it is most pertinent, but it receives no emphasis. Statements are so general that the high-school girl would not know how or where specific responsibilities lie. Only in the chapter "You and Your Country" is there discussion of specific opportunities for fulfilling the obligations of citizenship.

The lack of discussion of wartime influences is noticeable. Occasional mention of these conditions is found, but the reader is not made conscious of the need to adjust to a wartime economic structure. She is not helped to recognize the fact that the consumer-homemaker has a vital role to fill during the war.

In wartime the emphasis of consumers in making purchases is on what the product will do for them and on how to care for it, but the chapter on consumer buying states that "the consumer wants to know *where to buy, when to buy, how much to pay, and how to recognize and compare qualities*" (p. 437). On this basis, as a pre-war aid to consumer buying, the chapter offers an excellent survey of information. The discussion of the purchasing of particular items of clothing and of foods is presented in sufficient detail to be of practical help, but application of this information to wartime is left to the reader. "Victory Buying" covers only one-half page, and it is a brief repetition of standard wartime slogans.

It is difficult to present to the high-school girl studies in home selection, furnishing, and care and studies in child guidance and care.

The difficulty lies in the fact that the girl is obtaining background for a home of her own while she is still living in her parents' home. In this publication these units are well handled. They provide for observation of facts and for analysis in terms of the desirable, and they offer suggestions for activities and improvements in those phases and areas of the home in which the high-school girl may function.

The chapters on the girl—her personality and her relationships to associates, job, and country—are specific and helpful, practical and not too idealistic, stimulating to improvement.

The quotations from literary sources are a desirable form of concomitant teaching. The photographs are well chosen and attractively reproduced. They should appeal to the high-school girl both for their subject matter and for their art qualities.

As a point of departure for further study, the book serves its purpose well: to orient young people both to the world in which they find themselves and to the world immediately ahead of them.

FRANCES F. MAUCK

Ohio State University

CRITERIA FOR BOOK EVALUATION FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL LIBRARIES.—One of the fundamental activities of the secondary-school library is concerned with the problem of selecting books. Criteria for evaluation based on a consideration of the needs and interests of the adolescent as well as on the curricular backgrounds of the school have for the first time appeared in book form. A publication by Willard A. Heaps¹ deals directly, though sketchily, with this problem.

The purpose of the book is to serve as a guide to the basic factors of book selection in a functional school library serving Grades VII–XII. The volume is intended for school librarians and teacher-librarians both in the

professional training curriculum and in service, as well as for state and local school library supervisors, workers in school and young people's departments in public libraries, and educators and workers who may welcome its help.

Before the component parts of the study are analyzed, it is well to note the limitations which the author states in his Preface: "It is *not* a book of literary appreciation, nor is it intended to be a textbook in adolescent literature. It is *not* a guide to specific titles and authors" (p. 8).

Four areas of consideration are to be found in the book. The first section deals with the reading needs and interests of the adolescent. This treatment is in line with the present philosophy of the school library, which considers the "satisfied reader as the ultimate goal and purpose of all selection" (p. 16). However, topical headings tempt the reader to expect more than he finds. Generalizations abound, and concrete illustrations are lacking. Part II emphasizes the background of book selection in relation to basic problems confronting the school librarian, discusses the types of reading materials available, and lists annotated book-selection aids.

Part III is most valuable and practical from the standpoint of giving concrete summaries of curricular trends in junior and senior high schools. Types of book materials needed for each content area are outlined, and bibliographies for the subject fields are given. It is disappointing, however, not to find an analysis of reading difficulties, a discussion of the problem of availability of suitable materials for varying age levels, or a treatment of methods of integrating books with the curriculum, though these are vital factors in book selection in the secondary school.

Part IV summarizes the administrative techniques and steps involved in compiling book orders.

An analysis of the volume reveals that it lightly skims the surface and briefly and superficially suggests some of the underlying

¹ Willard A. Heaps, *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 336. \$2.50.

principles involved in a study of the book needs and interests of the adolescent. It does not show a careful interpretation of, or insight into, the known factors which have been brought to light by research studies dealing with the reading difficulties, the interests, and the background of young people. Many important topics are summarily dismissed in a brief sentence or two.

The volume, however, makes several important contributions in its field. It brings together, in an organized and convenient form, heretofore isolated facts pertaining to book selection. Good book lists and bibliographies on various subjects and curricular fields of the school follow the discussion of each subject. It lists in convenient form (though with no attempt at evaluation) publishers and their specialties; series and editions useful in school libraries; general book-selection aids, with their limitations and

strong points for various types of libraries; authors specializing in certain types of writing for young people; well-known travel, science, and art series; reference, recreational, and other types of books needed in each important subject field; and summaries of special criteria helpful for evaluation in specific fields, such as fiction, social studies, etc. Having these items available in concrete form will prove valuable and convenient.

In conclusion, one finds that, good as these points are, they are greatly offset by the limitations set by the author, plus the incomplete nature of the evaluations and criteria found in the book. The publication leaves much to be desired in the important field of book selection for secondary-school libraries.

ALICE LOHRER

*Library School
University of Illinois*

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- STRANG, RUTH, and HATCHER, LATHAM. *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xvi+218. \$2.50.
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- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
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- Circular No. 218, 1943—"Some Early Effects of the War upon Public Schools" by Emery M. Foster and Benjamin W. Frazier. Pp. 13 (mimeographed).
- School Children and the War Series, Leaflet No. 4, 1943—*Food Time—A Good Time at School.* Pp. 14. \$0.05.
- Victory Corps Series, Pamphlet No. 4, 1943—*Guidance Manual for the High-School Victory Corps.* Pp. vi+38. \$0.20.
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